

# RURAL SOCIOLOGY

*Dedicated to Scientific Study of Rural Life*

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Number 4

- ..... *Nathan Le Winans*  
..... *John R. McIlhenny and Helen E. Johnston*  
..... *James A. Dunbar and Burton W. Kruttschnitt*  
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## LAND REFORM IN A MODERN WORLD\*

by Nathan L. Whetten†

### ABSTRACT

Problems of land reform have taken on increasing international significance in recent years partly because of: (1) improvements in communications and transportation facilities, (2) the rapid growth and influence of international communism, and (3) the division of the world essentially into two armed camps each struggling for political and military advantage.

In this setting, land reform has become a tool for political action and is used by Communists to achieve imperialistic objectives having little relation to the simple dreams of naïve, land-hungry peasants. Western democracies, on the other hand, appear to be cast in the role of endeavoring to maintain the *status quo* in situations which would seem to call for change in the direction of improving the welfare of the masses. Guatemala is used as a case study to illustrate both the importance of land reform and the international tensions which it may engender.

About two-thirds of the people of the world live in what are now commonly referred to as "underdeveloped countries." These areas are underdeveloped in the sense that their economies operate at near-subsistence levels. They are predominantly rural in character, and their inhabitants are dependent primarily on agriculture for a living. Such countries do not yet enjoy the advantages of modern technologies and have not been able to take advantage of modern sanitation, nor of preventive or curative medicine to any great extent. Within their borders, sickness and disease are widespread, and illiteracy is exceedingly high. The average person born in these countries may expect to live only about half as long as an individual born in the more highly developed areas. Rumblings of unrest are increasingly heard among these rural civilizations. Recent events in Asia, Southeast Asia, the Near East, North Africa, and Central America testify to the turmoil that lies beneath the surface.

\*Presidential address delivered before the Rural Sociological Society, in joint session with the American Sociological Society and the Society for the Study of Social Problems, at the University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill., Sept. 8, 1954.

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Of the many problems which beset these areas, probably none is more important than those that stem from the relations of the people to the land on which they are dependent for a living. Land problems and agrarian reform movements have occurred throughout history in one form or another, but they have taken on new meanings and implications when viewed in the context of recent world developments.

In most of the underdeveloped countries of the world, where two-thirds of the people live, landholdings may be divided roughly into two broad groupings: large-scale holdings on the one hand, and diminutive or excessively small holdings on the other. In the first case, the situation tends to constitute land monopoly; in the second, the dwarfed or pulverized holdings are too small to provide a living for the occupants.

Where the large-scale holding (or *latifundio*) prevails, as in many parts of Latin America, a small proportion of the inhabitants own most of the land while the majority work either as farm laborers or as sharecroppers and tenants, or as a combination of these.

Where the diminutive holding (or *minifundio*) predominates, as in many countries of the Far East, the farm family must seek outside employment

in order to supplement the inadequate earnings from the farm. The difficulty here is that, in most underdeveloped countries, opportunities for outside work are virtually nonexistent. In looking for solutions to their economic problems, it seems only natural for the inhabitants of these countries to focus first on land reform.<sup>1</sup>

In a discussion of the history of agrarian reform movements Alvin Johnson said, in 1930:<sup>2</sup>

Most agrarian movements in history have been confined to areas limited relatively to the political system within which they have operated. This fact has frequently foredoomed them to failure. . . . The agrarian objectives are abstract, undefinable, elusive. . . . An agrarian movement is held together by a moral fervor that [soon] cools. . . .

The available evidence from classical antiquity and European history appears to substantiate these generalizations.

However, it is the contention of this paper that recent world developments

<sup>1</sup> Over the years, the term *land reform* has come to include much more than land redistribution. As stated in one recent publication:

Land reform has many aspects. In some cases it involves greater opportunity for ownership of the land by those who cultivate it; clear titles to land and water rights; security of tenure for the tenant, both in his interest and in the interest of improving the land and its productivity; and reasonable rentals to allow him a fair return. It may include consolidation of scattered plots, improved status for agricultural wage laborers, and equitable and economic distribution of newly developed or reclaimed lands.

But land reform is not simply a question of the legal relationship of the farmer to the land. It involves also the provision of reasonable credit to farmers, the amortization of farm indebtedness, and the establishment of equitable tax policies.—*Land Reform: A World Challenge*, Department of State Publication 4445 (Washington, D. C., 1952), p. 7.

<sup>2</sup> Alvin Johnson, "Agrarian Movements," *Encyclopaedia of the Social Sciences*, Vol. I (New York, 1937), p. 490.

have changed the situation so that agrarian movements may now transcend their political boundaries and spread to other areas. Indeed, it may be asserted that land reform has now become a tool of political action that is being used both on national and international levels. Today it seems quite possible for agrarian unrest in any area to have world-wide repercussions. One needs only to review recent events in Guatemala to realize what far-reaching consequences may develop from conditions in a tiny country with a land area about the size of the state of Tennessee and a population comparable in size to that of the borough of Brooklyn.

Some of the factors which have accentuated the world-wide importance of land problems may be briefly summarized as follows:

1. Improvements in communications and transportation facilities—such as the development of the airplane, the radio, and motorized transportation—have caused peoples to experience an awareness of ways of living that are different from their own. News of happenings elsewhere reach local inhabitants, and propaganda of one kind or other spreads with increasing facility. Poverty is less likely to be considered as inevitable, and desires for better living standards are becoming more widespread.

2. The division of the world essentially into two armed camps tends to give increasing importance to land problems. In the intensity of the Cold War, it is logical for each side to capitalize on whatever events will portray the opposite side in an unfavorable light. Unfortunately for us, the Communists have succeeded in exploiting agrarian problems to the fullest extent for their political purposes. They have capitalized on land reform as a tool for accomplishing imperialistic objectives which have little relation to the simple dreams of naïve, land-hungry peasants.

The Western democracies, on the other hand, have given the appearance of always trying to maintain the *status quo*, and, therefore, tend to be cast in the role of resisting changes—such as land reform—which would seem to be in the interest of the local inhabitants.

3. Closely related to these other factors, but perhaps more important than any of them in spreading the impact of agrarian problems beyond national boundaries, is the rapid growth and influence of international communism. From an estimated 170 million inhabitants living officially under Communist control in 1939, the number has increased to an estimated 800 million in 1954. This is about one-third of the world's population. Communism thrives on a seed bed of poverty, social unrest, and discontent and uses these conditions as an excuse for intervening in local affairs. With agents and representatives all over the world, it reaches down even to the local village level and offers hope to the oppressed. Without doubt, rural peoples gravely discontented over agrarian problems present a particularly vulnerable target to a movement which promises them a prompt and thorough solution.

Communists proceed on the assumption that "the end justifies the means." On the basis of such reasoning, anything is right which advances the objectives of the Communist Party;<sup>3</sup> deception, treachery, and conspiracy become acceptable procedures for attaining desired goals and are undoubtedly used in winning the support of discontented peasants. Communists conceal their ultimate objectives. Their high-sounding moral phrases and the initial land-redistribution measures are but decoys to lure the trusting peasants into the orbit of a Communist dictatorship. All this is consistent with the

avowed but unadvertised philosophy of the movement.

From the standpoint of rural peoples, the Communist solution to agrarian problems is no solution at all in the long run, because its goal of state ownership of all means of production includes agricultural production as well. Communist agitation for land reform in underdeveloped countries is but an intervening step toward achieving that goal. Their formula for land reform has actually been carried out in the Soviet Union and is in process of being carried out in Eastern Europe, China, and North Korea.<sup>4</sup> It involves, first, the confiscation and division of large holdings and the distribution of the land to the tillers. This is effective in gaining peasant support. Next, the peasants are encouraged to consolidate their holdings into *cooperative farms*. A government monopoly of such things as farm tools and machinery serves as a useful means of control or coercion. Finally comes the establishment of collective farms, which involve rent and paid labor. These are progressive steps to divorce the peasant from ownership of the land and replace the landlord with an equally severe taskmaster, the state.

But of course the peasants and farm laborers are not aware of any such subsequent developments. They have no knowledge of Marxist philosophy nor of the workings of international communism. They know only that the Communists show great interest in their local problems and offer what seems to them a simple program for solving them. They are not particularly interested in international relations nor in broad concepts of political democracy. In this connection, one is reminded of the conversation reported by Chester Bowles with a villager in

<sup>3</sup> See, for example, Lewis L. Lorwin, "Communist Parties," *Encyclopaedia of the Social Sciences*, Vol. 4, pp. 87-94.

<sup>4</sup> See, for example, James O. Howard, "Communist Formula for Land Reform," *Foreign Agriculture*, Vol. 15 (Mar., 1951), pp. 47-52.

India. Said the villager, "I am not concerned about this faraway Stalin against whom you warn us . . . we have our own Stalin here in this village—the man who owns the land we till. First tell us how to get out of his grip."<sup>8</sup>

The method and effectiveness of the Communist approach is well illustrated by a case study of recent events in Guatemala. When the writer first visited that country in 1944, the long dictatorship of General Jorge Ubico had just been overthrown through popular revolution. Prior to this time, peace and tranquillity had prevailed in Guatemala for many years. The dictator was in complete control. He had at his command the army and a national police force with which to carry out every wish. Freedom of speech and of the press were nonexistent, and any critics of the government could be quietly suppressed without publicity or recourse. As of 1950, 72 per cent of the inhabitants of the country were illiterate, most of them living in the highlands trying to eke out an existence from landholdings too small to provide a living. For the country as a whole, 2.2 per cent of the landowners possessed over 70 per cent of the farm land; and 76 per cent of the farmers had the use of less than 10 per cent of the land. The contrast between the *minifundio* and the *latifundio* is indicated by the fact that, while 40 per cent of all landholders had less than 3½ acres, 22 large owners each held more than 23,200 acres. Furthermore, the small holdings are located in the highlands where the soil is less desirable. The more fertile slopes and lowlands are in possession of the large-scale owners, many of whom have established coffee, sugar, and banana plantations, and, in some cases, cattle ranches. All keep a fairly large labor force on the place the year around in

order to make sure that regular, recurring tasks will be performed. As an inducement to these workers, it is customary to provide them with a small plot of ground where a little corn can be grown on the side for family use.

During rush seasons, the plantation owners are dependent on the seasonal migration of thousands of workers from the highlands. The landlords worry over the possibility of a labor shortage during the harvest season or at some other crucial time. The mere thought of the failure of these workers to show up when needed is enough to cause panic among the large-scale operators. But the government has traditionally been very sympathetic to the wishes of the large landowners and has cooperated most generously in trying to assure an adequate labor supply. Under the dictatorship, workers were prohibited from organizing; strikes were outlawed; and a national vagrancy law was in effect which required that any Indian not cultivating land of certain specified dimensions could be classified as a vagrant, unless he could prove that he had worked on the farms of others enough days to fill out the equivalent of a year's full-time employment. Each person was required to carry with him a card bearing notations as to the number of days worked. Vagrancy was punishable by law, and any Indian whose card did not carry the notations by landlords indicating the proper number of days worked could be rounded up by the police and thrown into jail or forced to work on the roads. Landowners could thus notify the government when shortages of labor occurred and the police would help augment the supply. The workers customarily received a wage varying from 6 cents per day in the Coban area to 20 cents per day in the coffee areas of the Pacific slope. Usually a small ration of corn was granted in addition to the wage.

<sup>8</sup> Chester Bowles, *Ambassador's Report* (New York: Harper & Bros., 1954), p. 173.



The dictators of Guatemala had been especially cooperative with the United States in the past. The United Fruit Company was granted so many special privileges that many local inhabitants felt it had acquired a virtual monopoly not only over the banana industry but also over the seaports and the transportation system of the country. During World War II, the mere inclusion of a German name on the American black list was sufficient for Guatemala to confiscate his property and send him to a concentration camp.

In 1944, the dictatorship was overthrown and a new constitution was adopted with very modern provisions proclaiming freedom of speech, freedom of the press, and the right of labor to organize and to strike. A new president was elected and machinery was set in motion to carry out the provisions of the new constitution. A great deal of opposition was encountered from the large landowners when the government suddenly decided to enact a modern labor code doing away with forced labor and providing for the establishment of minimum wages, shorter working hours, compensation for accidents on the job, and mustering-out pay for termination of employment without just cause. The large landowners argued that the economy of the country was based on export crops from the plantations, and that without forced labor the Indians would not work and the government would soon be bankrupt from lack of revenue. Indeed, it was often emphasized that coffee and, to a lesser extent, bananas constituted the economic lifeblood of the nation, and to interfere with their production in any way would mean national economic suicide.

The Communists, on the other hand, lost no time in making their services available to the new government. A school for Communist workers was organized in Guatemala City, and it was not long before native Guatemalans

were being shuttled back and forth to Moscow for further indoctrination and encouragement. The Communists took the lead in advocating extensive social and economic reforms at a time when landowners and businessmen vigorously opposed them. The government turned increasingly to the Communists for help and advice. With their assistance and leadership, the agrarian law was enacted over bitter opposition from large landowners. At first, land was taken only from government plantations that had been confiscated previously from German nationals during World War II. But gradually the private holdings of both local owners and foreign corporations began to be affected. The latter appealed to their own governments for help, and international tension was greatly increased.

The agrarian law, which was hastily conceived, contained many defects.<sup>6</sup> In some respects, however, it appeared to be rather mild as compared with similar legislation in Mexico. So far as private individuals or corporations were concerned, it called for expropriation of only unused lands. No land was to be taken from persons owning less than 223 acres whether used or not; and farms containing up to 670 acres could not be touched if two-thirds of the land was being farmed.<sup>7</sup> All lands taken were to be paid for by long-term government bonds bearing 3 per cent interest. The most vigorous objection here was over the price to be paid. According to the law, the government

<sup>6</sup> See *Ley de Reforma Agraria*, Decreto número 900 (Guatemala, C. A.: Publicaciones del Departamento Agrario Nacional, 1952).

<sup>7</sup> It is interesting to compare the provisions of the Guatemalan law with the agrarian laws enacted in Mexico where, for the most part, 100 hectares of irrigated land, or the equivalent, were exempt from expropriation. For an analysis of the Mexican experience, see Nathan L. Whetten, *Rural Mexico* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1948), chaps. 7-11.

would pay the equivalent of the value of the property as declared by the owners for tax purposes at the time of the latest assessment. In Latin America, as elsewhere, it is an old game to get one's property assessed at as low a rate as the traffic will bear; and the large landowners in Guatemala have been particularly skillful in keeping taxes low. Lands taken from the United Fruit Company, for example, had been declared by the company to have value for tax purposes of \$609,572.82; and this is what they were offered as compensation by the Guatemalan government when the lands were taken. The company, however, claimed that the expropriated property had an actual value of \$15,854,849.00; and this is the amount which the United States government requested that Guatemala pay as indemnity. In other words, the property for expropriation purposes was claimed by the owners to be twenty-six times as valuable as it had been declared for tax purposes.

However, the agrarian reform law contained several provisions which appeared to lend themselves to abuse and to complete totalitarian control. First, the expropriated land was not usually given to the peasants. Title was ordinarily vested in the government, and in such cases the peasant was given use of it for life with the provision that he pay as rent the equivalent of 5 per cent of the annual value of the crop. There was no provision for passing the land on to one's heirs at death. The land was simply to revert to the government.\* Secondly, both the administration of the law and the adjudication of conflicts growing out of its application were to be in the hands of the President of the Republic. There was to be no recourse to the

courts in cases where landowners felt they were being unfairly treated. One of the first landowners to become involved did take his case to the Supreme Court and was granted temporary immunity pending further investigation of the constitutionality of the law. Within twenty-four hours, however, Congress deposed the Chief Justice and all other judges who voted with him. They were dismissed on grounds of incompetence and new judges were appointed in their places.

Looking back over the approach used by the Communists in Guatemala, one finds the following procedures emphasized:

1. They moved quickly to fill in the political vacuum left by the overthrow of the dictatorship.

2. They identified themselves with idealistic and moralistic causes that would have a broad, practical appeal to the masses.

3. They attributed all ills of Guatemala to the foreign imperialists working jointly with local semi-feudal landlords to maintain monopoly over the land and labor resources of the country.

4. They succeeded to a considerable extent in identifying communism with democracy and progress for the common man, while anti-communism was identified as reactionary feudal-imperialism.

5. Finally, the Communists, as usual, were under severe discipline. They worked day and night to put their program across. They traveled throughout the country under difficult conditions in order to learn the problems of local and national concern. When there was land to be distributed to peasants by the government, they were the first to arrive on the scene and the last to leave. They seemed to accumulate more information about local problems than anyone else; and the peas-

\* The law specified that land could be given to the peasants under certain conditions. Actually, however, 86 per cent of the recipients have received the land for life-time use only.

ants gradually began looking to them for advice.

In 1952, the writer spent an evening at the headquarters of the National Confederation of Peasants<sup>9</sup> and was amazed at the patience displayed by the leaders in listening to the problems of the peasants and the efforts apparently exerted by the leaders in trying to solve them. The illiterate, barefooted peasants sat on the floor around the walls of the rooms; some of them had spent several days walking from their homes in order to reach the national capital. Their problems were many and varied: One wanted to know how he could get a piece of land under the agrarian law; another wanted to know how he could prevent the landlord from ejecting him; and a third wanted to know how to get a school in his community. They were listened to attentively, one by one, and in each case suggestions were made as to what might be done about it. Sometimes this involved a promise to send a memorandum to the Agrarian Department or to the Ministry of Education; sometimes a personal visit to the area was promised. In all cases, the peasant seemed grateful for the help and acted as if he had really found someone genuinely interested in his welfare. At 11:30 P.M., the national leader drove the writer to his hotel in a jeep and took several peasants along to talk with on the way back. The leader remarked that he expected to be listening to their problems until far beyond midnight.

But there is ample evidence to the effect that the Communists in Guatemala, like those behind the iron curtain, were not working chiefly for the welfare of the peasants. They were evidently using an approach designed to advance the long-run interests of

the Communist Party. A copy of the annual report of the secretary of the Communist Party in Guatemala to its members (February, 1952), which the writer managed to get, made this clearly evident. The report was filled with denunciations of the "Western imperialists" and with praise for the Soviet Union and its satellites. It traced through the various programs which the Communists had supposedly instigated in Guatemala and urged closer relations with the masses as the way to achieve success. The report contained the following exhortation from the secretary, who was also alleged to be the chief adviser to the President of the Republic:

In the unfolding of the entire future struggle, the Party must remember that its primary task is the establishing and tightening of links with the masses . . . listening attentively to their deepest felt needs and interpreting them in such a way that we may gain their confidence and thus be able to direct them. . . . The principal assignment is the orientation of ourselves toward the masses. If we do this the Party will merit the honorable name of communist. If we comply, our Party will become a more responsible organization, a militant organization, a revolutionary organization, a Leninist organization.

Then, as if to clear up all doubts about the international character of the movement, he ended this way:

EVERYONE TO THE STRUGGLE, THE FIGHT OF THE MASSES, UNDER THE BANNERS OF MARX, LENIN AND STALIN! FOR AGRARIAN REFORM, FOR BETTER LIVING CONDITIONS AMONG THE MASSES; AGAINST THE IMPERIALIST PROVOCATIONS; FOR THE UNITY OF THE DEMOCRATIC FORCES, FOR DEMOCRACY AND FOR PEACE!

LONG LIVE THE COMMUNIST PARTY OF GUATEMALA!<sup>10</sup>

Evidently the Communists moved too fast in Guatemala. Their initial success was so spectacular that the

<sup>9</sup> His studies in Guatemala in 1952 were made possible through a Guggenheim fellowship.

<sup>10</sup> A copy of the entire report is in the writer's files.

United States became alarmed; some of Guatemala's neighbors were getting panicky, and reverberations were being heard throughout the Americas. An invasion was launched from the neighboring Republic of Honduras by Guatemalan exiles, presumably with help from foreign powers. The Guatemalan army offered only token resistance and the government was overthrown. The Communists were driven out; the agrarian law was suspended; the right to vote was withdrawn from all illiterates; and a convention was called to write a new constitution; but future developments are problematical.

Certain questions come to mind which deserve to be answered. Will the country revert to a dictatorship where all opposition will be ruthlessly suppressed? Will peace and prosperity return to the large landowners and the foreign corporations while the landless peasants continue to struggle along in poverty and illiteracy? Will the peasants fare as well under the new regime as they thought they would under the one that has just fallen? And if not, where will their sympathies lie in the future?

Similar questions are awaiting answers in other parts of the world. Tak-

ing into account the world-wide extension of communication facilities, the present conflict between East and West, and the phenomenal spread of international communism, it seems inevitable that local problems such as land reform will have increasingly greater international repercussions.

The great victories of the Soviet Union in recent years have not been won by soldiers on the battlefield with guns and tanks and bombs. The Communist orbit has been expanded mostly through internal conquests; and, ironically enough, the greatest gains have been made through offering spurious hope to the downtrodden, the frustrated, and the poverty-stricken. Students of land reform must now include this new element in their equation and consider carefully the international implications of land reform if their analyses are to be at all adequate. And if the Western democracies wish to stop the spread of communism, they will have to do much more than try to maintain the *status quo*. They will have to devise programs with a stronger moral appeal that will offer real hope to the masses in the underdeveloped countries who are struggling for land and freedom from poverty.

## PROSPECTS FOR RURAL HEALTH CARE

by John R. McGibony, M.D., and  
Helen L. Johnston†

### ABSTRACT

The increased size of unit required to deliver modern medical care, combined with the effect of rural population shifts in the last half century, has made modern medicine more and more an urban development. The result has been gradual depletion of the supply of health personnel and facilities in rural as compared with urban areas. Among the efforts to reverse this trend are the special emphasis on needs of rural areas in the Hill-Burton hospital survey and construction program; the inclusion of rural experience as part of the training of physicians; the organization of services on an area-wide basis, bringing the isolated physician and the small rural clinic or hospital into a working relationship with larger medical centers; and the activity of citizens' health councils.

Current research and demonstrations need to be extended, and new types of research and demonstration must be developed. Rural sociologists, home economists, physicians, and other professional personnel, as well as the rural family and community groups, all have a role to play in coordinated efforts to equalize rural and urban health opportunities.

Prospects for health care for the rural segment of our population is a challenging subject, vital to the total social-economic structure of America. One is immediately faced with the influence of two major trends. The first is the rapid expansion of medical knowledge. Concurrently, specialization of medical practice has increased, the use of hospitals has expanded, and larger units have been required to provide comprehensive care. The sec-

ond major trend involves rural population changes, both the long-term shift from rural to urban areas and the constant movement back and forth between country or small town and cities, for trade, recreation, and other purposes.

### MEDICAL CARE TRENDS

Obviously, expansion of medical knowledge does not affect rural people alone but is universal in its impact. Mortality and morbidity patterns have changed as infectious diseases have been brought under control, to a large extent the result of improvements in preventive and curative medicine. Meanwhile, chronic diseases have gained in importance. The process of discovery that led to control of infectious diseases is now being repeated as medical research builds up a new fund of knowledge, equipment, and special skills around the prevention, diagnosis, and care of chronic illness.

New discoveries lead to further specialization, taking medical practice further beyond the capacity of a single person to master in all its aspects. Even about twenty-five years ago, only 1 out of 10 physicians was a specialist

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Helpful comments by Robert L. McNamara, University of Missouri, based on his review of the manuscript, have been incorporated.

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TABLE 1. SPECIALISTS AS A PERCENTAGE OF ALL PHYSICIANS, AND NUMBER OF PHYSICIANS AND SPECIALISTS PER 100,000 POPULATION, UNITED STATES, SELECTED YEARS

Year	Specialists as percentage of all physicians	Physicians per 100,000 population	
		All physicians	Specialists only
1923.....	10.6	130	14
1929.....	14.5	125	18
1938.....	19.8	131	26
1949.....	31.1	135	42

Source: U. S. Public Health Service, *Health Manpower Source Book*, Part I, pp. 13, 21. Population data from U. S. Census Bureau.

(Table 1). Now more than 3 out of 10 are specialists. As specialization progressed, doctors tended more frequently to care for patients in a hospital rather than in their offices or in the patients' homes. In general, today's physician has more specialized knowledge about disease than the family doctor of twenty-five years ago; he is likely to know less about the family and its home environment.

With this movement of medical care to the hospital, the number of hospital beds available has increased and their use has increased at a still more rapid rate (Table 2). Nearly nineteen mil-

TABLE 2. GENERAL AND SPECIAL HOSPITALS IN THE UNITED STATES AND THEIR CAPACITY AND USE, 1927 AND 1952

Indices	1927	1952
Number of hospitals..	5,206	5,472
Number of beds.....	394,854	698,545
Per cent occupancy...	65.6	73.9
Admissions per 1,000 population .....	*	118.7
Patient days per capita .....	.79	1.22
Average daily census.	258,928	516,318

\*Information not available.

Source: "Hospital Service in the United States," reprints from the *Journal of the American Medical Association* (Hospital Nos.: Apr. 20, 1946 and May 9, 1953). Population data from the U. S. Census Bureau.

lion Americans were hospitalized last year.<sup>1</sup> Hospitals have become the nation's fifth largest industry.<sup>2</sup> The cost of building and equipping a general hospital has increased from \$5,000 or \$6,000 per bed in past years to more than \$15,000 in 1951.<sup>3</sup> It costs as much to operate a hospital for three years as to build it in the first place.<sup>4</sup> Per diem costs of patient care have increased accordingly (Table 3). The combination of increased demand, resulting from increased public awareness of the life-giving possibilities hospitals offer, and increased costs, which can be met by the family of average income only with difficulty, has led to a rapid growth in hospital insurance (Table 4).

Current health and medical care standards require large physical plants and staff. Many believe that a 50-bed general hospital is the smallest size that is practical. At the generally accepted ratio of 4.5 beds per 1,000 persons, a 50-bed general hospital requires a population base of 11,000.<sup>5</sup> A population of this size usually can support from 8 to 15 general practitioners and a general surgeon.<sup>6</sup> Twice as many people are required to support an

<sup>1</sup> American Medical Association, "Hospital Service in the United States: 1952 Census of Hospitals," reprinted from *Journal of the American Medical Association* (May 9, 1953), p. 3.

<sup>2</sup> Lucy Freeman, *It's Your Hospital and Your Life*, Public Affairs Pamphlet No. 187 (New York, 1952), p. 11.

<sup>3</sup> Commission on Hospital Care, *Hospital Care in the United States* (New York: The Commonwealth Fund, 1947), p. 411; Robert A. Cohen, "How to Estimate the Cost of Hospital Construction," reprinted from *Hospitals*, journal of the American Hospital Association (Mar., 1953).

<sup>4</sup> Commission on Hospital Care, op. cit.; J. R. McGibony, M.D., "The 50-Bed Hospital—Its Planning and Costs," reprinted from *The Modern Hospital* (Dec., 1947).

<sup>5</sup> Louis S. Reed, *How Many Hospital Beds Do We Need?* (Washington: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1953).

<sup>6</sup> John R. McGibony, M.D., *Principles of Hospital Administration* (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1952), p. 28.



eye-ear-nose-and-throat specialist, and nearly three times as many for a specialist in pediatrics, obstetrics, or internal medicine. Standards for a full-

time local health unit require a population of 50,000.<sup>7</sup>

Thus current standards—an outgrowth of expanded medical knowledge—make modern medicine chiefly an urban development. Even in a state with relatively dense population, it may take more than one county in some parts of the state to support a pediatrician. In the Great Plains, a whole section of a state may be required. In a large part of the nation, districts including two or more counties are required to meet the population standard for a well-staffed and well-equipped local health unit.

#### RURAL POPULATION TRENDS

While these changes in medical knowledge and practice have been taking place, rather striking changes have also been going on in rural areas. The long-term shift to cities—resulting from mechanization and other factors leading to greater productivity per farm worker—has reduced the rural share of the nation's people from 49 per cent in 1920 to 41 per cent in 1950.<sup>8</sup> The out-migration has been chiefly among rural youth, leaving behind the very young, the middle-aged, and the older group. Meanwhile, although former rural-urban differences in birth rates have been declining in recent years, the rural rate is still higher than the urban.

Along with the exodus of people there has been an exodus of services. This results not only from the long-term shift of the population cityward but also from an increasing tendency

TABLE 3. INDEX OF PER DIEM COST OF HOSPITAL CARE COMPARED WITH CONSUMERS PRICE INDEX IN 34 LARGE CITIES, 1940-1951 (1935-39 EQUALS 100)

Year	Hospital cost index	Consumers price index
1940.....	103.5	100.2
1941.....	105.5	105.2
1942.....	113.7	116.5
1943.....	122.8	123.6
1944.....	128.3	125.5
1945.....	132.3	128.4
1946.....	150.6	139.3
1947.....	179.6	159.2
1948.....	209.7	171.2
1949.....	226.8	170.2
1950.....	235.3	171.9
1951.....	260.7	185.8

Source: Hospital cost index is from Frank G. Dickinson, *Comparative Increases in the Costs of Medical Care and the Costs of Living*, American Medical Assoc., Bureau of Economic Research, Bull. 62 (May, 1948); also quoted in *Journal of the American Medical Association*, Vol. 149 (July 19, 1952), p. 1157. This hospital cost index is based on hospital rates, with adjustments for extra charges and discounts. Consumers price index from U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics.

TABLE 4. PERSONS HAVING HOSPITAL INSURANCE—ESTIMATED NUMBER PER 1,000 POPULATION, BY TYPE OF CARRIER, 1939 AND 1944-50 (NO ADJUSTMENT FOR DUPLICATION OF COVERAGE)

Year	Insurance companies		Blue Cross plans
	Group policies	Individual policies	
	Number per 1,000 population		
1939.....	10	*	34
1944.....	63	*	119
1945.....	59	*	143
1946.....	81	21	173
1947.....	99	53	192
1948.....	115	77	208
1949.....	119	99	224
1950.....	149	112	246

\*Data not available.

Source: *Health Insurance Plans in the United States* (Washington: U. S. Government Printing Office), Part I, Table 1, p. 26.

<sup>7</sup> Haven Emerson, *Local Health Units for the Nation* (New York: The Commonwealth Fund, 1945). On the basis of a resolution passed by the Executive Committee of the State and Territorial Health Officers, a minimum of 35,000 was set, still requiring formation of districts combining several counties in many cases; see PHS Pub. 42 (Washington, D. C.), p. 6.

<sup>8</sup> Arthur F. Raper, *A Graphic Presentation of Rural Trends* (Washington: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1952), p. 3.

among rural people to use the services of larger centers. Doctors have moved from many small towns. Banks and general stores have also moved to larger centers.

The growing ease of travel from farm and small town to city has helped to lessen former differences between rural and urban characteristics. Other factors breaking down rural-urban differences include the growth of the commuter zone around cities, the increasing proportion of farm operators who work off the farm, and the general lessening of rural isolation through radio, television, and newspapers shared by rural and urban people alike. These influences have affected health attitudes and practices just as they have affected other attitudes and practices.

#### NET EFFECT OF MEDICAL CARE AND POPULATION TRENDS ON RURAL SERVICES

Changes in distribution of physicians, toward a much larger proportion in urban than in rural areas, had started by the early 1920's. By 1949, the ratios of physicians to population were 173 per 100,000 persons in greater metropolitan counties and 131 per 100,000 in lesser metropolitan counties (Table 5). Isolated semi-rural counties with at least one community of

2,500 or more had 80 physicians, and isolated rural counties, 50 physicians for each 100,000 persons. In addition to their generally lower physician-population ratio, the smaller places have more than their share of older, less productive, and less-well-trained men.

In Missouri, for example, the supply of rural physicians has failed for forty years to keep pace with rural population growth. Rather than leveling off, the disparity has grown in the most recent decade. It might be argued that rural physician losses are felt more keenly than are removals of many local businesses from small population centers.

General practitioners are distributed more evenly than specialists, over the country as a whole. The range in ratio of general physicians to population is from 79 per 100,000 in greater metropolitan counties to 48 per 100,000 in isolated rural counties. For specialists, the corresponding range is from 59 to 2 per 100,000.

The general pattern of distribution of dentists, nurses, and other members of the medical-care team is similar to that of physicians.<sup>9</sup> Although the predominantly rural South exceeds most other regions in population coverage by full-time local health services, the area is deficient in public health nurses compared with other regions.<sup>10</sup>

Obviously, a low ratio of health personnel to population in a local area is not necessarily a handicap. Good roads and automobiles have put people on wheels. It is quicker and easier today for the average farm family to drive 60 or 100 miles to a nearby town or city than it once was to go 5 or 10 miles to the nearest village.

Recent reports vary as to the current

TABLE 5. ACTIVE, NONFEDERAL PHYSICIANS  
PER 100,000 POPULATION, BY TYPE  
OF COUNTY, 1949

Type of county	Physicians per 100,000 population		
	Total	General practitioners	Specialists
Metropolitan:			
Greater .....	173	79	59
Lesser .....	131	59	48
Adjacent .....	78	58	14
Isolated:			
Semi-rural ...	80	57	17
Rural .....	50	48	2

Source: U. S. Public Health Service, *Health Manpower Source Book*, Part 1, Table 35, p. 42.

<sup>9</sup> Helen G. Tibbitts and Eugene Levine, *Health Manpower Sourcebook*: Sec. 2, *Nursing Personnel* (1953), pp. 9, 17, 18, 19; also, American Dental Association, *Survey of the Dental Profession* (1950).

<sup>10</sup> Tibbitts and Levine, *op. cit.*, p. 60.

TABLE 6. PHYSICIANS' VISITS PER 1,000 CHILDREN UNDER 15, BY TYPE OF COUNTY, 1946-47

Type of county	Visits per 1,000 children under 15			
	Total	General practitioner	Pediatrician	Other specialist
All counties .....	4,928	3,686	552	690
Metropolitan:				
Greater .....	6,424	4,291	957	1,176
Lesser .....	5,366	3,284	1,074	1,068
Adjacent .....	4,416	3,974	155	287
Isolated:				
Semi-rural .....	4,380	3,741	237	403
Rural .....	2,701	2,639	8	54

Source: Report of the American Academy of Pediatrics, Supplement to Child Health Services and Pediatric Education, Table 33.

TABLE 7. HOSPITAL UTILIZATION AMONG THE NONINSTITUTIONAL POPULATION AGED 65 AND OVER, BY POPULATION GROUP, 1951

Population group	Admissions per 1,000	Days per admission	Days per 1,000 persons
All persons 65 and over .....	73	22.5	1,649
Urban residents .....	71	25.8	1,843
Rural-nonfarm residents .....	82	19.9	1,636
Rural-farm residents .....	70	12.4	862

Source: I. S. Falk and Agnes W. Brewster, "The Aged Need Protection from the Costs of Hospital Care," reprinted from *The Modern Hospital* (Apr., 1953).

relationship between distance from service and use of care. A state-wide Michigan survey, however, indicates a consistent decrease in medical attention received as distance to the nearest doctor increases.<sup>11</sup> A Missouri study shows a higher incidence of chronic disease among the farm people of an area seriously deficient in all health services compared with another area which has hospital beds and physicians although they are in short supply.<sup>12</sup> A 1946 report for the nation as a whole shows that children in isolated counties receive one-third less medical care than those in or near cities (Table 6). The

volume of care by pediatricians and other specialists is particularly deficient. At the other end of the age scale, a study of hospital use during 1951 shows that the number of days of care received per 1,000 persons is less for farm people aged 65 or more than for other population groups of the same age (Table 7).

Regardless of distance to service, as the rural economic level has improved in recent years, rural use of health services has increased. Comparisons of births and deaths by place of residence and place of occurrence reflect increased use of urban hospitals by rural people.<sup>13</sup> In 1936, 1 per cent of

<sup>11</sup> Charles R. Hoffer and others, *Health Needs and Health Care in Michigan*, Michigan State College AES Special Bull. 365 (East Lansing, 1950), pp. 21-22.

<sup>12</sup> Robert L. McNamara, *Illness in the Farm Population of Two Homogeneous*

*Areas of Missouri*, Missouri AES Research Bull. 504 (Columbia, 1952), p. 26.

<sup>13</sup> U. S. Public Health Service, National Office of Vital Statistics, *Vital Statistics of the United States* (Washington, D. C., 1949).

the babies in communities with 80 per cent or more of the population rural-farm were born in hospitals; in 1946, 30 per cent were born in hospitals.<sup>14</sup> A recent New York county study shows a rate of calls by physicians approximately double that twenty-five years earlier.<sup>15</sup> About four times as many families used hospitals, and 90 per cent of the births occurred in hospitals, compared with 30 per cent earlier.

Public opinion polls and the resolutions of national farm organizations in recent years indicate a favorable rural attitude toward voluntary health insurance.<sup>16</sup> In spite of this fact, insurance plans continue to attract the largest enrollment in the highly industrialized areas to which they are best adapted—where enrollment through employee groups, payroll deduction, and employer contribution facilitate participation.<sup>17</sup>

Rural population trends which drain off those in the most productive years and leave behind young children and older people seem likely to lead to continued rural need for medical care at least equal to that among urban residents. The opportunities for improvement in rural infant mortality rates and the relatively high farm accident rate also show at least equal medical care need in rural areas. In addition, the rural rate of chronic illness apparently equals that of city populations, but in rural areas the care of the chronically ill poses problems of peculiar difficulty.

<sup>14</sup> Raper, *op. cit.*, footnote 8, p. 30.

<sup>15</sup> Unpublished data, USDA, BAE.

<sup>16</sup> Howard W. Beers, "Rural-Urban Differences: Some Evidence from Public Opinion Polls," *Rural Sociology*, XVIII:1 (Mar., 1953); resolutions approved at recent meetings of the three major national farm organizations.

<sup>17</sup> U. S. Congress, Senate, Committee on Labor and Public Welfare, *Health Insurance Plans in the United States* (Washington, D. C., 1951), Part I, p. 8.

Rural people themselves have repeatedly pointed out these and other needs, and have voiced dissatisfaction with current trends in rural health services.

#### FACTORS HELPING TO OFFSET CURRENT TRENDS

A realistic look at the impact of current medical care and population trends on rural services requires a look at offsetting factors as well. Most of these have been introduced so recently or within so restricted an area that their effectiveness has not been tested.

The Hill-Burton hospital survey and construction program, providing federal aid to back up state and local funds and initiative, probably is the most widespread attempt to stem the flow of physicians and other health personnel to cities. Because of their conviction that lack of rural facilities was an important factor leading physicians to desert rural areas, farm organizations gave wholehearted support to enactment of the Hill-Burton program in 1946. Of the total of 1,491 general hospital projects approved under the program by June, 1953, 784 were for new hospitals.<sup>18</sup> Nearly 3 out of 5 of these are in communities of less than 5,000, many of which previously had no hospital. Other small communities have built hospitals without outside aid. Many report that their new hospitals have attracted physicians and enticed local women with professional nurses' training back into part- or full-time nursing.

Instead of building a hospital, some small communities have built and equipped a doctor's office in order to attract a physician.

The recently established American Academy of General Practice seems likely to enhance the status of the general practitioner, the type for whom rural people feel the greatest

<sup>18</sup> U. S. Public Health Service, Division of Hospital Facilities.

need. Thereby more medical students may be attracted into general practice rather than into the various specialties.

The physicians' placement services operating in a number of states under the auspices of the medical society may help rural groups not only to obtain doctors but also to find alternative ways to obtain medical care in case no doctor chooses to locate in their home town.

Scholarship aid programs emphasizing rural practice have been developed in about a dozen states. It is too soon to know whether these programs will permanently benefit rural areas. The student's orientation of urban sophistication and his expectation of practicing the kind of medicine he has been taught may be overriding influences favoring urban location, at least after the terms of scholarship aid have been fulfilled.

A number of schools include rural experience in their training programs for medical and nursing students. This connotes a new approach to medical education clearly oriented to problems of rural health. In some cases, local communities take it upon themselves to make these students feel at home and to make rural life attractive to them.

Believing that a rural shortage of doctors is more than a matter of poor distribution, farm groups in a few states have been working with other organizations toward expansion of medical-school facilities and increased enrollment.

In addition to these national and state programs, local projects to help offset rural handicaps are developing in a few areas. Some are frankly experimental. Others perhaps could not be transplanted elsewhere without substantial modification. Nevertheless, they may be looked upon as "straws in the wind" which help to indicate the possible shape of things to come.

One such project is a group-practice

clinic at the main center of a rural county in New York State.<sup>19</sup> This county had practically no specialists before the clinic was established. Now it has the services of qualified specialists in all major fields. Each of several branch offices is staffed by a family physician and a dentist. Specialists are brought closer to local people through rotation to these branches. The clinic has started an "annual review" program primarily for the symptom-free adult, to whom the staff members refer as the "forgotten man of medicine." The clinic also has a mental health team which is gradually making mental health activities acceptable in this rural county.

A New Jersey county with a predominantly rural population is developing a new hospital affiliated with a nearby medical school.<sup>20</sup> The specialist staff is chosen jointly by the university and local citizens. The hospital is a training center for a small group of internes and residents who want experience in rural general practice. Every family physician in the area who is in good professional standing is eligible for staff membership. The center includes doctors' offices in the outpatient wing, for the use of family physicians who bring a patient in for diagnosis, treatment, or special consultation. It also includes space for public health activities.

A project in a Maryland county extends public health services to all corners of the county through branches supported by local citizen health associations.<sup>21</sup> Besides the usual basic services, the county unit handles county administration of a state-wide medical care program for the medically indi-

<sup>19</sup> Caldwell Blakeman Esselstyn, "Group Practice with Branch Centers in a Rural County," *New England Journal of Medicine*, 248:488-493 (Mar. 19, 1953).

<sup>20</sup> Freeman, *op. cit.*, footnote 2, pp. 19-20.

<sup>21</sup> Unpublished data from Anne Arundel County, Md., Health Department.



gent and offers a broad health-education program for all adults, encouraging them to plan for a periodic physical examination by their family doctor and to adopt other practices to promote health. The unit has a continuing working relationship with local physicians and the welfare agency, as well as with the local citizen health associations.

Health services on wheels serve the people of a few sparsely settled areas. In North Dakota, with a population totaling less than that of the city of Milwaukee and scattered over 70,000 square miles, it was felt that the state's hearing clinic must go out to the people rather than be located in an urban center with the hope that the people would come to it.<sup>22</sup> In small towns, rural schools, and crossroads communities, the mobile unit provides diagnostic service and demonstrates the importance of early treatment for speech and hearing defects.

After years of discussion, a South Dakota community of 2,000 population finally concluded that financing a small hospital such as they had in mind would be difficult and staffing would be equally troublesome.<sup>23</sup> As an alternative, the volunteer fire department undertook responsibility for the purchase and operation of an ambulance, fitted with the latest types of equipment including a resuscitator and two-way radio. No charge is made for using the ambulance, but donations are accepted. Of nearly 200 trips in a little more than two years, most were made to hospitals within 50 miles. Trips have been made, however, to a medical center nearly 600 miles away.

Recent Missouri<sup>24</sup> and North Caro-

lina<sup>25</sup> studies provide clues to the current burden of chronic illness among rural people. State hospital-planning agencies and advisory groups are giving attention to planning for chronic care. Going beyond the planning stage, the University of Oklahoma has started a pilot program in six counties, chosen on the basis of availability of public health staff and distance from the university's School of Medicine.<sup>26</sup> The program is designed to provide long-term care for medically indigent outpatients after they have returned to their own communities. It is also designed to provide medical students with a demonstration of intensive, long-term medical care. Close liaison is required among private physicians, county health officers and their staffs, welfare organizations, and the medical and social services of the university hospital.

An experiment in a New Jersey county in providing homemaker service for the long-term and disabled patient is reported to be "... satisfactory, easily administered and satisfying to agencies, doctors and patients alike. It is one of the strongest links in the chain for good home care . . . ."<sup>27</sup> A pilot project for training practical nurses and homemakers has been initiated in Minnesota to supplement professional nursing and home care "at a point of tremendous need, the rural

<sup>22</sup> C. Horace Hamilton, "Chronic Illness in a Rural Area," *Chronic Illness Newsletter*, Commission on Chronic Illness, Baltimore, Vol. 2 (Sept., 1951).

<sup>23</sup> "University of Oklahoma Program Instructs Medical Students in Care of Long-term Patients," *Chronic Illness Newsletter*, Commission on Chronic Illness, Baltimore, Vol. 4 (May, 1953).

<sup>27</sup> Mrs. Thomas F. Delaney and Maud Morlock, "Homemaker Service," *Chronic Illness Newsletter*, Commission on Chronic Illness, Baltimore, Vol. 2 (Nov., 1951).

<sup>22</sup> Information from the Office of Vocational Rehabilitation.

<sup>23</sup> Unpublished data from Farmers Home Administration, USDA, Washington, D. C.

<sup>24</sup> McNamara, *op. cit.*, footnote 12.



community."<sup>28</sup> Graduates are eligible for the state board examination for licensing as practical nurses. They are equipped to assist in the care of the sick in hospitals and other institutions, in health agencies, and in homes.

Experiments to adapt hospitalization plans to the special requirements of rural communities are underway in Kentucky, North Carolina, and elsewhere.<sup>29 30</sup> A few small communities have formed local cooperative health associations with their own prepayment plans.<sup>31</sup> By encouraging early diagnosis and treatment, through offering care in the doctor's office on a pre-paid basis, these health cooperatives hope to reduce a family's burden of illness in terms of lost working time and suffering as well as in terms of costs.

State and local health councils are another encouraging development, although not confined, of course, to rural areas. Unless organized on a basis of both country and town representation, a local health council may find itself stymied on activities that inevitably involve both rural and urban interests. Health councils and health committees of community development associations have tackled community surveys, clean-up campaigns, financing of hospital construction, and a host of other problems. In some of their health programs—hospital construction is an example—they have found it essential to call upon broader resources than those of the local area, in order to meet a local need.

<sup>28</sup> Katherine Densford and others, "Practical Nurses and Homemakers for Rural Minnesota," *Minnesota Medicine*, 35:847-849, 871 (Sept., 1952).

<sup>29</sup> "New Directions in Prepayment Plans," *Trustee*, 6:26 ff. (Feb., 1953).

<sup>30</sup> Unpublished data from Bureau of Agricultural Economics, USDA, Washington, D. C.

<sup>31</sup> Helen L. Johnston, *Rural Health Cooperatives* (Washington: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1950).

#### NEW CONCEPTS

Currently developing concepts of the roles of institutions and individuals are reflected in many of the efforts now underway to provide more and better care in rural areas and elsewhere. With expanding knowledge, the hospital evolved from "a place to die" to a place where people expect to be restored to health. Now emerging is a still broader concept of the hospital as a "one-stop health service center," bringing to focus all the health resources of a community and with the hospital playing a greater role than before in preventive medicine. Under this concept, the hospital provides a fence at the top of the precipice as well as a bed at the bottom.

The inseparability of preventive and curative medicine was a concept adhered to by the late Joseph Mountin. Dr. Mountin once said, "As medical science has advanced we have learned that the cure of a communicable disease in one individual may prevent its occurrence in others, and that early treatment of any illness tends to lessen the need for more extensive care later. Today scarcely any aspect of clinical medicine is without its preventive component."<sup>32</sup> In his opinion, the future requires "suitable working arrangements between health departments, hospitals, private physicians, and others who actually perform various services."<sup>33</sup>

Home care—not as a substitute but as an extension of hospital care—is a concept still in the early stages of development. Involving as it does close liaison of doctor and family and the use of visiting nurses, its rural devel-

<sup>32</sup> Joseph W. Mountin, "Participation by State and Local Health Departments in Current Medical Care Programs," *American Journal of Public Health*, 36:1387-1393 (Dec., 1946).

<sup>33</sup> Joseph W. Mountin, "The Health Department's Dilemma," *Public Health Reports*, 67:223-229 (Mar., 1952).

opment on any wide scale must await considerable expansion of health personnel and facilities. There must also be willingness to spread the cost in an equitable fashion.

The concept of prepayment, now generally accepted as a suitable method of financing care, is nevertheless under constant scrutiny with the purpose of including more services and reaching more people.

The need for counseling during health as well as sickness has long been taken for granted in pediatrics. Signs seem to be pointing in this direction for adult care, with emergence of a concept of a general practitioner whose role is not subservient to that of a specialist but is of equal if not greater importance. His role resembles that of the old family doctor who was also friend and counselor, but with something added. That "something" involves close working relationships with others having a major interest in health promotion and restoration. It may be the means of helping to tie together the loose threads of current health and medical-care practice in order to offer the total resources of modern health care practically in one package.

The concept of the interrelatedness of health services offered by communities of varying size is becoming a practical reality in a few areas, with the gradual linking of large and small hospitals into a single system serving the same general population group.

The developing concept of citizen responsibility—that "health is everybody's business"—is another with importance for the future. When the doctor's role was considered to cover pretty nearly the gamut of health responsibility, hospitals owned and operated by physicians developed in hundreds of communities. Proprietary hospitals are becoming somewhat less important in the total hospital picture,

with the development of the concept that institutions for health care—both preventive and curative—are properly the responsibility of the total community. The concept of health as an individual, family, and community responsibility also extends to health maintenance measures to reduce the need for help from specialized health workers.

#### SOME ADAPTATIONS AND ADJUSTMENTS NEEDED

Even with more equitable distribution of available health personnel, it seems unlikely that existing needs—rural and urban—can be met fully. More doctors, nurses, public health workers, and other members of the health team may be needed, thus requiring expansion of professional schools and increase in their enrollment. Another basic need is more effective use of what we have and reliance on auxiliary personnel for services they can perform, reserving the doctor's, dentist's, and nurse's time for the services only they can provide.

Other requirements include expansion of such existing programs as those to acquaint medical and nursing students with the satisfactions of rural practice, to provide refresher courses for the practicing rural physician, to extend medical school campuses to serve rural areas in various ways, and to organize services so that rural practitioners will have closer and more constant contact with larger centers.

The need for fewer patients is even greater than the need for expanded services. This will require education, to develop greater public awareness of possibilities for preventing illness and disability and to create motivation for undertaking preventive activities. Basic to this education are studies of the attitudes, motivations, and practices of people, with due regard for continuing differences among people in ur-

ban and rural areas.<sup>34</sup> We need to know much more than we do now about the maintenance of health—with respect to prevalence of use of home remedies, use of physicians and limited practitioners, home and family arrangements, nutrition and living habits, and attitudes toward health and its maintenance.

As the rural population continues to decline in many parts of the country, the burden of providing health services for those who remain in rural areas seems likely to become greater. Rural people will need to adjust to a new concept of the role of their communities in the provision of comprehensive health care. Many communities may not be able to provide and maintain even a minimal health-service center with a few beds for emergencies. But if communities would team up and use their total resources effectively, health services—preventive and curative—even now could be made more adequate in many areas without adding new staff or facilities.

The web of relationships that already exists between rural and urban people and their communities and institutions needs to be broadened and strengthened. The board membership of a large urban health-service center might well include not only representatives of urban groups but also people from rural areas. Support, financial and otherwise, for these institutions needs to be gained among rural people. Such support would have to be based on their understanding of the contribution made by the large center to rural services. Instead of entering the large urban center as an outsider, the rural citizen needs to feel that this center belongs to him as well as to the urban resident.

The Commission on Financing Hospital Care is now taking a long look at

present methods of financing care. Part of its program is "... to study the costs of providing adequate hospital services and to determine the best systems of payment for such services." In its deliberations it needs to give special consideration to the people of a "next-year country." These will include most rural people of the United States, since typically their livelihood from year to year depends, directly or indirectly, on the vagaries of weather, fluctuating prices, and other unforeseeable risks.

Adjustments are also needed in other research programs and demonstrations. We have made great progress in our knowledge of how to prevent illness and disability, how to diagnose and treat disease, and how to restore the disabled to productive living. We have been relatively slow in developing ways to apply our fund of medical knowledge as effectively as possible. We have had relatively little systematic research concerning how to acquaint people with available resources and their use; how to bring services up to a reasonable standard quantity-wise, not only by increasing personnel and facilities but also by making better use of those we have; how to enable families to afford and communities to support the needed services; how to identify the place of communities of various sizes within the distribution pattern of health services, so that, rather than all communities having like functions, each may serve the purposes best suited to its local situation; how to make services of equivalent quantity and quality everywhere available, by developing effective working relationships among communities and their health personnel and institutions; or how to evaluate services, the efficiency with which they are provided, the effectiveness of their use, and possibilities for their improvement and for greater economy in their use. An associated and important area of research

<sup>34</sup> Harold Hoffsommer, "The Health Culture Patterns of Rural People," *Public Health Nursing*, 44:309-314 (June, 1952).

relates to sources of health information for rural people: How can health information be disseminated, and in what way is it acted upon?

Equalizing rural and urban health opportunities will require further extension of research and demonstrations now underway, and further spreading of information about them. It will also require new types of research and demonstrations focused on the human being to be served and his needs. A team effort by rural sociologists, home economists, physicians, and other professional personnel will be essential.

As much as anything else, if rural health prospects are to be bright, further determined effort of rural citizens will be required. Working with others with whom their need is shared, they should focus their effort toward the goal set for all people by the World Health Organization: "... complete physical, mental, and social well-being, not merely the absence of disease or infirmity."

#### SUMMARY

Medical care trends and rural population changes tending to make modern medicine an urban development seem likely to continue. Offsetting efforts to improve the quantity and quality of rural health care, to attract young professional men and women to rural areas, to organize services, and to improve methods of financing also seem likely to continue. The need for such efforts seems likely to persist.

The way people are distributed within an area as well as their total num-

bers will determine the size and location of future health-service units. In addition to continued opportunities for reducing rural infant mortality, the increased mechanization of agriculture and the migration of youth from rural areas are among the factors which will affect the type of local services required. The general rural economic level and the possibility of adapting insurance plans to rural situations will affect demand. Still more important influences on the quantity and quality of services demanded are likely to be the understanding, attitudes, and practices of rural people as affected by their general educational level; by health education through extension, public health, and other channels; and by continued diminishing of rural-urban differences.

New concepts of the role of institutions and individuals as well as the role of communities of varying size will have a bearing on future rural health services. Area-wide organization of service or its lack may determine whether the small health-service center and the isolated medical practitioner will be relegated to a second-rate position or be made an integral and important part of a larger unit providing comprehensive care to both rural and urban people. Perhaps more than any other single factor, bringing to bear in a coordinated way the best thinking of professional and lay persons on individual, family, and community health problems will determine the future of rural health care.

## SELECTED CULTURAL CHARACTERISTICS AND THE ACCEPTANCE OF EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS AND PRACTICES\*

by James A. Duncan† and Burton W. Kreitlow‡

### ABSTRACT

Nineteen pairs of rural neighborhoods were matched and compared on their acceptance of 30 school practices, an index of 25 farming practices, and 4 elements of organizational participation. In each pair, a neighborhood homogeneous in its ethnic and religious composition was matched with a neighborhood that was heterogeneous in its ethnic and religious composition. Ten farm families in each neighborhood were randomly selected, and one of the heads in each family personally interviewed by a trained interviewer. Five male heads and five female heads in each neighborhood were interviewed. The neighborhood was considered the unit of analysis, and the mean score of the ten interviewees was designated as the acceptance value for each neighborhood. Heterogeneous neighborhoods were found consistently more favorable toward a majority of the educational practices and indices. Statistically significant differences in favor of heterogeneous neighborhoods were found on educational goals, aspirations and attainments, and on the index of adoption of farming practices.

### INTRODUCTION

Previous research has established that there is much variation among cultural groups in their attitudes toward education. These group differences in attitude may be expressed in varying degrees of acceptance of specific educational programs, practices, and proposals. Among the socio-cultural factors influencing the formation and modification of attitudes toward education are ethnic background, religious composition, strength of primary group and kinship ties, and socioeconomic status. Sociological and educational studies in Wisconsin and Minnesota have established that, among the socio-cultural characteristics related to rural people's attitudes toward education, the ethnic-religious factor operating jointly has a significant influence on attitudes toward certain educational programs and practices.<sup>1</sup>

\*This paper reports one phase of a longitudinal study of rural education conducted under the auspices of the Research Committee of the Graduate School, University of Wisconsin.

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<sup>1</sup>D. G. Marshall, "Education in Rural Wisconsin" (unpublished ms., University of

The question for investigation in the present study was whether there are differences in attitudes toward education between rural neighborhoods that are homogeneous in their ethnic and religious composition and those that are heterogeneous in these respects. *Attitude*<sup>2</sup> is defined here as the verbal expression of one's opinion, feelings, beliefs, and actions ascertained in a personal interview situation in answer

Wisconsin, 1952); W. A. DeHart, "Significance of Cultural Factors in the Determination of Educational Behavior of Farm Families in Selected Rural Wisconsin Communities" (unpublished Ph.D. thesis, University of Wisconsin, 1950); D. G. Marshall, W. H. Sewell, and A. O. Haller, "Factors Associated with High School Attendance of Wisconsin Farm Youth," *Rural Sociology*, XVIII:3 (Sept., 1953), pp. 257-260; B. W. Kreitlow and R. A. Koyen, "A Longitudinal Study of Newly Formed Centralized Rural School Districts in Wisconsin," First Progress Report (unpublished ms., University of Wisconsin, 1951), pp. 196 f.; H. A. Pedersen, "Acculturation among Danish and Polish Ethnic Groups in Wisconsin" (unpublished Ph.D. thesis, University of Wisconsin); and H. A. Pedersen, "Cultural Differences in the Acceptance of Recommended Practices," *Rural Sociology*, XVI:1 (Mar., 1951), pp. 37-49.

<sup>2</sup>L. L. Thurstone and E. J. Chave, *Measurement of Attitudes* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1929), pp. 6 f.



to direct questions. *Actions* refers to adopting a practice, such as using a high analysis fertilizer or participating in a program or an organization.

The problem may be stated in the form of the following null hypothesis to be tested: *There is no difference between neighborhood groups that are homogeneous as to their ethnic and religious characteristics and neighborhood groups that are heterogeneous as to these characteristics, in their acceptance of selected educational programs and practices as represented by (1) opinions and actions toward school practices and programs, (2) the adoption of recommended farming practices, and (3) participation in formal organizations.*

#### METHODOLOGY

The data were obtained by personal interview in 38 rural neighborhoods located in southern, southwestern, central, and northwestern Wisconsin. Graduate students in rural and adult education, trained in interview techniques for this study, interviewed all respondents. The neighborhoods were selected so as to constitute 19 matched pairs, one in each pair being homogeneous in ethnic and religious characteristics and the other heterogeneous in these respects. The two neighborhoods in each pair were matched on the following characteristics: (1) size in square miles, (2) distance from city or village, (3) type of farming, (4) density of population, (5) type of school-district organization, (6) number of pupils of school age, and (7) equalized evaluation per school-age pupil. The 19 pairs represent a range of agricultural land types, types of school system, and specific major ethnic-religious groups in the state. The ethnic-religious groups of the homogeneous neighborhoods included German Catholic, German Lutheran, Norwegian Lutheran, Danish Lutheran, Swedish Lutheran, Polish Catholic,

and Swiss Evangelical and Reformed.

After the neighborhoods had been delineated<sup>3</sup> and matched, population lists were made and verified from the county farm-plat books. Since the neighborhood rather than the individual was to be the unit of analysis,<sup>4</sup> a random sample of 10 farm families was selected from each neighborhood, making a total of 380 interviewees. Five of the interviews were conducted with male heads of families and five with wives of male heads. The 10 families per neighborhood comprised from 20 to 75 per cent of the farm families in the neighborhoods.

The interview schedule consisted of 30 questions on attitudes toward various school practices, developed and pretested by the present authors; a 25-item index of farm-practice adoption, adapted from an index developed by Wilkenings;<sup>5</sup> a formal-organization

<sup>3</sup> *Neighborhood* as defined and delineated here is a small locality grouping of people having identifiable primary contacts and a sense of belonging together. The criteria applied in delineation were nationality, religion, school district, and economic services. After determining that neighborhoods met the sociological criteria listed above, the rural elementary school district lines were used as the boundaries of the neighborhood. This was done to facilitate research operation. The rural elementary school district was considered in this case to constitute the major part of the neighborhood area, and it was believed that the school district is more compatible with the concept *neighborhood* than an area defined by any other criteria. The present authors, with the aid of extension agents, local and county school personnel, and neighborhood residents, delineated all neighborhoods in the study.

<sup>4</sup> For this concept, see B. R. Fisher et al., *Peacetime Use of Atomic Energy*, Vol. I (Ann Arbor, Mich.: Survey Research Center, University of Michigan, 1951), p. 6.

<sup>5</sup> E. A. Wilkenings, "The Acceptance of Certain Agricultural Programs and Practices in a Piedmont Community of North Carolina" (unpublished Ph.D. thesis, University of Chicago, 1949); "A Socio-psychological Approach to the Study of Acceptance of Innovations in Farming," *Rural*



participation scale adapted from Chapin;<sup>6</sup> Sewell's Scale of Socio-economic Status (Short Form);<sup>7</sup> an index of neighborhood strength, adapted from Alexander and Nelson;<sup>8</sup> and an index of "strength of familism" developed by Wilkening.<sup>9</sup>

Scores were assigned to each respondent on the basis of the degree of his expressed favorableness or unfavorableness toward the specified school practices, his adoption of farm practices, the participation of all family members in formal organizations, and his standing on the other indices. Mean neighborhood scores were then computed for each educational practice and each index. These mean scores were the values used to compare the neighborhoods making up each pair. Thus each neighborhood, rather than each respondent, was given equal weight in the analysis.

To determine the significance of differences within the pairs of homogeneous and heterogeneous neighborhoods in the acceptance of all educational practices and indexes, the statistical

sign test, a non-parametric statistic, was used. The selection and matching of the neighborhoods on the basis of certain predetermined criteria make the data amenable to non-parametric statistics.<sup>10</sup> In comparing non-random groups, the form of distribution is not known, and one cannot assume normal distribution. Here the comparisons are between distributions and not between parameters.

Moses states that the sign test is applicable and that matched pairs may be employed where an experimenter wishes to establish that two treatments are different. The assumptions underlying the sign test are: (a) that the variable under consideration has a continuous distribution, and (b) that both members of any pair are treated similarly except for the experimental variables. There is no assumption of normality or of similar treatment of the various pairs.

When applied to this study, a series of 19 pairs of matched neighborhoods are being compared in their degree of acceptance of specific educational practices. Ethnic and religious composition are combined as the experimental variable, and educational, economic, and geographic characteristics represent the similarities.

#### THE ACCEPTANCE OF SCHOOL PRACTICES

Heterogeneous neighborhoods were definitely more favorable toward the school practices than were the homogeneous neighborhoods. On 20 of the 30 practices the heterogeneous neighborhoods were more favorable, on 3 of the practices the homogeneous neighborhoods were more favorable, and on the remaining 7 there was no difference between the two.

*Sociology*, XV:4 (Dec., 1950), pp. 352-364; *Acceptance of Improved Farm Practices in Three Coastal Plain Counties of North Carolina*, North Carolina AES Tech. Bull. 98 (Raleigh, May, 1952); and "Sources of Information for Improved Farm Practices," *Rural Sociology*, XV:1 (Mar., 1950), pp. 19-30.

<sup>6</sup> F. S. Chapin, "Social Participation and Social Intelligence," *American Sociological Review*, IV:2 (Apr., 1939), pp. 157-168; and *The Social Participation Scale* (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1937).

<sup>7</sup> W. H. Sewell, "Short Form of the Farm Family Socioeconomic Status Scale," *Rural Sociology*, VIII:2 (June, 1943), pp. 161-170.

<sup>8</sup> Frank Alexander and Lowry Nelson, *Rural Social Organization in Goodhue County, Minnesota*, Minnesota AES Bull. 401 (Minneapolis, Feb., 1949), pp. 10 f.

<sup>9</sup> E. A. Wilkening, "Change in Farm Technology as Related to Familism, Family Decision Making, and Family Integration," *American Sociological Review*, XIX:1 (Feb., 1954), pp. 29-37; and "Techniques of Assessing Farm Family Values," *Rural Sociology*, XIX:1 (Mar., 1954), pp. 39-49.

<sup>10</sup> W. J. Dixon and F. S. Massey, Jr., *Introduction to Statistical Analysis* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1951), pp. 290-294; and L. E. Moses, "Non-Parametric Statistics for Psychological Research," *Psychological Bulletin*, XLIX:2 (Mar., 1952), pp. 122-143.

The null hypothesis is rejected at two levels. First, the rejection is for those school practices and items on which there are statistically significant differences in neighborhood acceptance scores at the one-per-cent level and between the one- and five-per-cent levels. On five of the practices the differences were significant at these levels. Secondly, the null hypothesis is rejected for those school practices which are not significant at the five-per-cent level but on which the patterns of differences are consistent. On fifteen practices the differences are at this level. The practices are listed and grouped below:

SCHOOL PRACTICE ITEMS ON WHICH THERE WERE STATISTICALLY SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES FAVORING HETEROGENEOUS NEIGHBORHOODS<sup>11</sup>

1. Amount of formal education necessary for boys to be farmers.
2. Amount of formal education necessary for girls to be farmers' wives.
3. Educational attainment of the wife.
4. Educational attainment of the husband.
5. Amount of education desired by parents for the children still in school.

These school practices and items which most widely differentiate between the two types of neighborhoods represent educational goals, attainments, and aspirations. It is concluded for the neighborhoods studied that people living in rural locality groups that are heterogeneous in ethnic and religious make-up attain and express desires for higher educational goals than those living in homogeneous locality groups. Furthermore, there is a greater difference between these two types of neighborhoods in the attainment of and desire for educational ends or goals than in the attitudes toward the means or practices for reaching these ends.

<sup>11</sup> Items 1, 2, 3, and 4 are significant at the one-per-cent level. Item 5 is significant at a level between one and five per cent.

SCHOOL PRACTICE ITEMS ON WHICH THERE ARE CONSISTENT BUT NOT STATISTICALLY SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES FAVORING HETEROGENEOUS NEIGHBORHOODS<sup>12</sup>

1. Opinion as to the number of grades each elementary school teacher can best handle with 25 pupils (smaller number of grades considered more desirable).
2. Favorableness toward the provision of health examinations by the school.
3. Favorableness toward the importance of art, music, and recreation in the school.
4. Favorableness toward the county committee's plan to reorganize the school districts.
5. Belief that a reorganized school district is most desirable.
6. Opinion as to whether tax rates will be raised in school reorganization (belief that tax rate will not be raised is considered most favorable).
7. Favorableness toward a complete hot lunch.
8. Favorableness toward use of school buildings and facilities by organizations outside the school.
9. Favorableness toward parents' organizations in the school.
10. Favorableness toward compulsory 16-year-old school-attendance law.
11. Interest in adult evening classes.
12. Favorableness toward attending adult evening classes.
13. Favorableness toward more formal education being required for elementary school teachers.
14. Favorableness toward more formal education being required for high school teachers.
15. Educational attainment of the children who have terminated their formal education.

These 15 items represent primarily those practices considered by educators as being necessary to furnish comprehensive educational opportunities. For example, such ideas in the elementary school program as a smaller number of grades per teacher, provision of health examinations and hot lunches, school reorganization, more college training

<sup>12</sup> These differences are below the five-per-cent level of significance.

for teachers, and the use of school buildings and facilities for other than school purposes indicate a definite break with traditional school practice. These practices represent changes in the direction of a broad and progressive school program. The evidence indicates that cultural groups heterogeneous in ethnic and religious make-up tend more to accept innovations and changes toward a progressive school curriculum.

SCHOOL PRACTICE ITEMS ON WHICH THERE ARE NO DIFFERENCES IN ATTITUDES AND OPINIONS BETWEEN HOMOGENEOUS AND HETEROGENEOUS NEIGHBORHOODS

1. The emphasis that should be placed on reading, writing, and arithmetic in the schools.
2. The numbers and kinds of physical education items and personnel that should be available in the school.
3. Satisfaction with the publicity program regarding school reorganization.
4. The desirability of being in a high school district.
5. The distance that elementary school children should be expected to walk on their way to school.
6. The provision of pupil transportation by the school district.
7. Present and past attendance at adult evening classes.

For these seven items the null hypothesis cannot be rejected. These programs and practices on which there are similarities between the two types of neighborhoods are generally those necessary to operate a school at minimum standards. Such items as the basic reading, writing, and arithmetic; provision of playground equipment; and getting children to school are representative of traditional and basic practices fundamental to a minimum school curriculum.

SCHOOL PRACTICE ITEMS ON WHICH THE DIFFERENCES FAVOR HOMOGENEOUS NEIGHBORHOODS

1. Opinion that control over the schools will not be lost if reorganization takes place.

2. Belief that parents should help the teacher plan what is to be taught in the schools.
3. Belief that it is necessary to have modern conveniences in the school.

These three items relate primarily to immediate situational factors. The rural school has traditionally been a potent force for neighborhood strength, often being referred to as the neighborhood center. Strong social and cultural ties have developed around the neighborhood school. Because of the strength of these ties and the control exercised by the people over their school, the opinion is prevalent that this control will still be maintained if reorganization takes place. The feeling that parents should help the teacher plan what is taught is the avenue through which parents can work to maintain their control over the schools and see that children are taught according to the beliefs of the family. The prevailing thought that modern conveniences are necessary in the school is conditioned by like situations in the home. Parents favor their children having access to the same conveniences in the school as are accessible in the home.

THE ACCEPTANCE OF IMPROVED FARMING PRACTICES

The neighborhoods in each of the 19 matched pairs were compared on their farming-practice-acceptance scores. Each respondent was given a score based on the number of practices he had adopted from the list of 25. Mean scores were then computed for each neighborhood. Table 1 compares the mean scores of each pair of neighborhoods.

The heterogeneous neighborhoods have significantly larger farming-practice-adoption scores than the homogeneous ones. The differences are in favor of the heterogeneous in 16 of the pairs, and in favor of the homogeneous in 3 of the pairs. When the non-pa-

TABLE 1. COMPARATIVE MEAN FARMING PRACTICE ACCEPTANCE SCORES OF PAIRED HOMOGENEOUS AND HETEROGENEOUS NEIGHBORHOODS

Pair number	Mean scores of neighborhoods		Sign of difference*
	Homogeneous	Heterogeneous	
1	56	43	-
2	48	49	+
3	56	61	+
4	43	44	+
5	43	50	+
6	44	55	+
7	41	49	+
8	47	55	+
9	37	48	+
10	28	43	+
11	30	40	+
12	32	39	+
13	43	46	+
14	39	34	-
15	29	40	+
16	44	46	+
17	32	33	+
18	43	46	+
19	51	44	-

*N* = 19 pairs, *r* = 2, level of significance < .01.

\*Plus denotes pairs in which the heterogeneous neighborhood has the higher score; minus denotes pairs in which the homogeneous neighborhood has the higher score.

metric statistical sign test is applied, a significance at the 1-per-cent level favoring heterogeneous neighborhoods is found. The evidence seems sufficiently conclusive that the null hypothesis may be rejected. The hypothesis that neighborhood groups which are heterogeneous in their ethnic and religious characteristics adopt a greater number of improved farming practices than do neighborhood groups that are homogeneous in these cultural aspects seems to be supported. It would appear that there are factors of culture, tradition, and social control—such influences as those of family, religion, and primary group—which in homogeneous neighborhoods operate as barriers to the acceptance of farming technology recommended by outside agencies. The differences between homogeneous and heterogeneous neighborhoods in the acceptance of farming practices are

greater than for any of the educational practices analyzed in this study.

#### FORMAL ORGANIZATION PARTICIPATION

The matched pairs of neighborhoods were compared on the four elements selected to measure formal organizational participation—(1) membership in organizations, (2) attendance at meetings during the past year, (3) offices held in organizations during the past five years, and (4) committees served on during the past year. Comparisons were also made between the matched pairs on a composite score for these four elements. While differences between homogeneous and heterogeneous neighborhoods are not statistically significant on any of the elements, the differences do favor heterogeneous neighborhoods on 3 of the 4 elements. Homogeneous neighborhood residents have a higher number of memberships in organizations, while heterogeneous neighborhoods have higher scores for attending meetings, holding office, and serving on committees (Table 2).

In Table 2, elements 2, 3, and 4 require of the organizational participant a certain degree of action, and as these three elements are observed in that order the differences are increasingly in favor of heterogeneous neighborhoods. On the basis of the composite score, the heterogeneous neighborhoods show slightly greater over-all organizational participation.

When the organizations are classified according to types, the differences between homogeneous and heterogeneous neighborhoods become more striking. On the basis of all four indices, homogeneous neighborhoods show greater participation in religious and social organizations, while heterogeneous neighborhoods show greater participation in agricultural and school organizations.

This suggests that in locality groups homogeneous in ethnic and religious make-up there is an element of cultural control that promotes a conform-

TABLE 2. COMPARATIVE FORMAL ORGANIZATIONAL PARTICIPATION OF PAIRED HOMOGENEOUS AND HETEROGENEOUS NEIGHBORHOODS

Indices of participation*	Number of pairs in which:			Difference in favor of:
	Homogeneous neighborhood scored highest	Both scored same	Heterogeneous neighborhood scored highest	
1. Number of memberships.....	11	1	7	Homogeneous
2. Attendance at meetings during past year.....	9	0	10	Heterogeneous
3. Number of offices held during past 5 years.....	8	0	11	Heterogeneous
4. Number of committees served on during past year.....	5	1	13	Heterogeneous
5. Composite score.....	7	0	12	Heterogeneous

\*Scores based on the participation of all members of the families.

ity of its members to participate in organizations that perpetuate the culture. The culture is more solidly grounded in the traditions, customs, and values of religion and ethnic background. Furthermore, these data indicate the strength of religion and ethnic background in the determination of attitudes toward organizations advocating technological and social change. The greater degree of participation on the part of farm families in heterogeneous neighborhoods indicates the presence of a great variety of values and a social climate conducive to the success of organizations advocating technological and social progress. The presence of fewer cultural controls in heterogeneous neighborhoods would mean fewer barriers to participation in agricultural and school organizations.

#### SOCIO-CULTURAL FACTORS AND EDUCATIONAL ATTITUDES

Certain socio-cultural factors have been found to influence the acceptance of educational programs and practices. Three of these, often assumed to be highly associated with the formation and modification of attitudes toward education, have been selected for analysis. Comparisons of homogeneous and heterogeneous neighborhoods are

made on socio-economic status scores, neighborhood strength, and an index of familism. On socio-economic status the differences are in favor of heterogeneous neighborhoods. Although these differences are not statistically significant, heterogeneous neighborhoods have higher socio-economic status scores in three-fourths of the pairs. Homogeneous neighborhoods rank higher on neighborhood strength and family identification items in over two-thirds of the comparisons.

When socio-economic status and the acceptance of farming practices are compared, a positive association is evident. But between socio-economic status and attitudes toward school practices and programs there is no association. The association between socio-economic status and organizational participation is not clear-cut when all types of organizations are considered, but socio-economic status and participation in school and agricultural organizations are more positively associated. When the attitudes toward progressive educational practices are related to strength of neighborhood and family, a negative association is evident. This suggests that adherence to primary group identification and the influence of parents, family,



TABLE 3. DISTRIBUTION OF NEIGHBORHOODS ON FAVORABLENESS TOWARD SCHOOL PROGRAMS AND PRACTICES, BY ETHNIC-RELIGIOUS COMPOSITION OF NEIGHBORHOODS

Acceptance scores	Homogeneous neighborhoods							Heterogeneous neighborhoods
	Ger. and Pol. Cath.	Ger. Luth.	Norweg. Luth.	Swed. Luth.	Dan. Luth.	Swiss Evan.	Total	
2-7 (least favorable).	3	0	2	0	1	1	7	0
8-13 .....	2	2	4	1	0	0	9	3
14-19 .....	0	0	0	1	0	1	2	12
20-26 (most favorable).	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	4
Total.....	5	2	6	2	2	2	19	19

and kin provides a socio-cultural atmosphere which is a deterrent to the development of favorable attitudes toward education. This kind of atmosphere is more pronounced in homogeneous neighborhoods.

#### ETHNIC GROUP DIFFERENCES

Although the homogeneous neighborhoods, as a group, were less favorable on the school practices than the heterogeneous neighborhoods, there were differences in favorableness among the several ethnic-religious groups making up the homogeneous neighborhoods. There were also differences among the neighborhoods of a given ethnic-religious group. The distribution of neighborhoods on favorableness toward school programs and practices (Table 3) shows these differences. The acceptance score assigned each neighborhood was the number of school practices on which the neighborhood was more favorable than its match. These scores, ranging from 2 to 26, were grouped into four score-categories. Of the 19 homogeneous neighborhoods, 16 fall in the two "least favorable" categories and 3 in the two "most favorable" categories. Of the 19 heterogeneous neighborhoods, 16 fall in the two "most favorable" categories and 3 in the two "least favorable" categories. In degree of favorableness,

from low to high, the ethnic-religious groups rank as follows: (a) German and Polish Catholic, (b) German Lutheran, (c) Norwegian Lutheran, (d) Swiss Evangelical and Reformed, (e) Swedish Lutheran, (f) Danish Lutheran, and (g) heterogeneous neighborhoods.

When the neighborhoods were similarly ranked by farming-practice-acceptance scores, 13 heterogeneous and 6 homogeneous neighborhoods were in the two "most favorable" categories. The six homogeneous neighborhoods were of Norwegian and Swiss ethnic stock. In the ranking on organizational participation, however, the two "most favorable" categories included homogeneous and heterogeneous neighborhoods in about equal numbers. The homogeneous neighborhoods with the largest participation scores were of Norwegian and German ethnic stock. Heterogeneous neighborhoods consistently had higher scores on participation in agricultural and school organizations.

#### IMPLICATIONS

This comparison of homogeneous and heterogeneous neighborhoods on educational attitudes has revealed both differences and similarities. Knowledge of where these differences and similarities exist—both in cultural

characteristics and in attitudes toward specific educational programs and practices—can provide valuable program guides for school and agricultural officials.

Knowing the differences between the various cultural groups in their attitudes toward school practices can prove useful to county superintendents, principals, and teachers in planning school programs and advocating changes. Curriculum changes and school reorganization must be carried out in ways compatible with the attitudes of the people affected. The evidence that heterogeneous neighborhoods set and attain higher educational goals has wide implication for the kinds of school programs considered necessary by cultural groups to reach these goals. The fact that heterogeneous neighborhoods favor a broad and progressive curriculum while homogeneous groups favor the traditional and basic school practices suggests the strong influence of culture in determining attitudes. The importance of this to educators attempting to implement a comprehensive school program is indicated by the fact that in some areas the attitudes of the various ethnic groups are a determining factor in bringing about desired educational changes.

The evidence that heterogeneous neighborhoods are significantly more favorable toward the adoption of improved farming practices is important to agricultural agencies and personnel promoting technological advances in agriculture. The fact that heterogeneous neighborhoods have advanced further in the adoption of improved

farming practices strongly suggests that the various ethnic groups must be approached differently by professional agriculturists. This requires a systematic consideration of the kinds of ethnic groups, the practices being promoted, and the leadership patterns that are influential in furthering the acceptance of improved practices. It appears that the adoption of farming practices is strongly influenced by the cultural make-up of locality groups. The evidence here shows that the socio-cultural controls existing in homogeneous neighborhoods limit the adoption of improved farming practices to a greater degree than in heterogeneous neighborhoods.

Homogeneous neighborhood residents show greater participation in religious and social organizations, while heterogeneous neighborhood residents show greater participation in agricultural and school organizations. This implies a general divergence of purpose on the part of the two types of neighborhoods. On the one hand, the homogeneous neighborhoods seek to place emphasis on the perpetuation of the culture through participating in religious and social organizations. On the other hand, the heterogeneous neighborhoods place emphasis on advancing agriculturally and educationally through organizations available for that purpose. Educators concerned with organizations may well consider the purposes that organizations serve among the various ethnic groups or combinations of ethnic groups. In organizing and servicing organizations, professional educators must consider the part culture plays in organizational objectives.

## THE EFFECTS OF GEOGRAPHICAL POSITION ON BELIEF AND BEHAVIOR IN A RURAL MORMON VILLAGE

by Thomas F. O'Dea†

### ABSTRACT

A Mormon village in New Mexico is studied in relation to Lowry Nelson's findings from a study of several Mormon villages in Utah and elsewhere. The New Mexican village is seen to be much less affected by secularization, as revealed by such criteria as (1) decline in number of farmers, (2) multiplication of formal organizations outside the church, (3) increased impersonality and contractual relations, and (4) loss of the sense of community. Yet comparison of the villages reveals only one important factor which distinguishes the New Mexico village from the others—its peripheral position. It is suggested that this is the independent variable explaining the relative absence of secularization.

In an appended comment on this paper, Lowry Nelson calls attention to the internal and external factors keeping the New Mexico village as it is and suggests further study of the hypothesis that conformity may vary inversely with distance from the cultural center.

In his analysis of Mormon settlement in Alberta, Canada, Lowry Nelson indicates the contribution of religious institutions and religious beliefs to successful settlement in frontier conditions.<sup>1</sup> Especially concerning the village of Orton, Nelson shows that religious institutions held the settlers to their community when the physical difficulties were extreme. Religious beliefs and institutions enabled the Latter-day Saints to conquer difficult frontiers not only in Canada, but also in Utah and the Southwest. Equally interesting to sociology, however, is the reverse relationship—the role of frontier conditions, i.e., of peripheral situation, in the perseverance of religious institutions themselves. As in so many matters of interest to sociologists, there is a two-way relation, a feedback, here also. Not only did religion act as an important factor enabling the Mormons to subdue forbidding areas, but the isolation and "peripheralness" of these areas also con-

tributed to strengthening Mormon religious sentiments and institutions.

The present study, unfortunately, is not a planned and controlled one. It is rather an attempt to subject material collected for other purposes to comparative examination. Nelson's study is an analysis of the Mormon village as a pattern and technique of land settlement. It includes an examination of the most striking trends to be seen in rural Mormon villages today. Three villages in Utah, all studied originally in the mid-twenties, are resurveyed, and these in particular provide a base point from which to measure change, and a reexamination point at which to observe it. The present study is of a Mormon village in northwestern New Mexico, and is a part of a larger analysis of Mormon values and their influence upon settlement and social institutions.

The most striking difference between the village to be discussed here and the villages studied by Nelson is one of geographic position. Let us take this characteristic as the independent variable and assume that in all other important particulars these villages are drawn from a homogeneous universe. This is by no means a rigorous state-

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<sup>1</sup>Lowry Nelson, *The Mormon Village: A Pattern and Technique of Land Settlement* (Salt Lake City, Utah: University of Utah Press, 1952), pp. 213-272.

ment; yet, if taken in a general way, such an approach to comparison is highly suggestive. All the villages here were founded as part of a deliberate and conscious Mormon effort to establish settlements which would embody, and provide a proper setting for, the Mormon way of life. From an economic point of view, there do not appear to be any more serious differences between Nelson's three villages and the writer's one than among Nelson's three alone. There is an important difference in size, but this paper will attempt to show that size in this case is a function of geographical position, which is here taken as the independent variable.

There are two additional supporting theses which may be submitted in defense of this procedure. It is, although not rigorous, in the tradition of comparative studies which have added much to sociological knowledge, Weber's larger—but also not rigorous—study of comparative religion being the most illustrious example. Moreover, the hypothesis—that isolation and peripheral position tend to strengthen distinctive in-group social institutions and beliefs—is supported by a larger study of Mormon history.<sup>2</sup>

#### RIMROCK—A VILLAGE ON THE PERIPHERY OF MORMONDOM

Rimrock,<sup>3</sup> located in northwestern New Mexico, was settled in the late

<sup>2</sup> This problem will be dealt with in greater length in the writer's forthcoming monograph, *Mormon Values: The Significance of a Religious Outlook for Social Action*.

<sup>3</sup> Data on this village were gathered by the writer in six months of field work in the community in 1950-51 as a part of a comparative study of five cultures financed by the Rockefeller Foundation. This research was done through the support of the Values Study of the Laboratory of Social Relations, Harvard University. The forthcoming monograph (footnote 2) represents research done under the auspices of the Values Study. Rimrock is a pseudonym, in keeping with project policy.

1870's as part of a larger Mormon project to plant settlements in the region of the Little Colorado River. It was, even at the time of settlement, on the periphery of Mormon pioneering efforts. It was originally set up as an outpost for missionary work among the Indians to whose conversion the Mormons were especially dedicated, believing them, as they did, to be descendants of apostate Hebrews. Although there was some polygamy practiced in the early settlement, it was definitely not established as a refuge for those prosecuted under federal anti-polygamy legislation as was the case with the first wave of Canadian Mormon settlement. The first settlers in Rimrock were "called" by the church, that is to say, they were chosen and sent on their task by the church leadership.

The settlement was located in the southern part of the Colorado Plateau at an elevation of approximately 7,000 feet, in country characterized by mesas and canyons and with flora and fauna typical of the Upper Sonoran Life Zone. The village was placed at the base of a mountain range which rises as high as 9,000 feet, a site purposely chosen by the Mormon pioneers because it offered the possibility of collecting winter water by means of a storage dam and thus making irrigation-farming possible. Average annual precipitation is about 14 inches, but varies greatly from year to year. Water, even with the present excellent storage reservoir, is an ever-present problem. The early years were difficult indeed. Drought, rust, and the breaking of the rock-and-earth dam which the settlers had constructed added to the troubles of the pioneers. Moreover, the Mormon settlers had squatted on land which was owned by a land company, and they were forced to buy it at an exorbitant price to avoid eviction. In these crises they received substantial aid—in cash and seed—from

the general authorities of the church in Salt Lake City. One Mormon leader called this settlement the "toughest proposition in the Church." Like Orton,<sup>4</sup> Rimrock would have been abandoned without the religious motivation and the religious institutional framework which kept its settlers at their tasks.

In 1950, when the data for the present study were collected, Rimrock was a Mormon village of about 250 inhabitants. With the passing of the years, emphasis had shifted from missionary work to farming, especially cattle-raising. Irrigation farming provided alfalfa, wheat, and garden vegetables. The church, with its hierarchically structured priesthood and its auxiliary organizations which activate women and youth, is the central core of the village. Local cooperatives, such as the cattle company, the irrigation company, and the water company, grew out of church activities. The church provides today the basic structure not only for religious life, but also for civic life and much of economic life. The village embodies the classic Mormon design.<sup>5</sup> Its pattern of life and social relations reflects the basic ideal of Mormon settlement throughout the West. Its physical layout is based on the Nauvoo revision of Joseph Smith's plat for the City of Zion.

#### NELSON'S CONCLUSIONS

In his definitive study, Lowry Nelson has demonstrated the existence of two trends among the villages of the Mormon area. The first is a tendency away from the compact village pattern of settlement that has been characteristically Mormon and which derives from the policy of the church in the

settlement period. This tendency was by no means uniformly found. Nelson says that "the persistence of the village pattern among the Mormons depends upon the character of the physical environment in which particular communities are located."<sup>6</sup> Dispersion was not found in Escalante or in E. aim, either in the mid-twenties or in the resurvey made in 1950. It was found in American Fork in both periods. Nelson states that "there is little question that dispersion on farms will continue in the valleys along the front of the Wasatch Range from Utah County on the south to Cache County on the north."<sup>7</sup> He documents this trend further by the data of a study of four villages in Cache County and four villages in Utah County made by the Bureau of Reclamation.<sup>8</sup> Nelson notes that a "line village pattern is emerging in Utah, Davis and Weber counties."<sup>9</sup> Nelson's second tendency—and probably the more important in relation to the present study—is secularization of life in the Mormon villages. He gives some seven criteria of secularization, all of which he found in the three Utah villages:

In some respects, if not most, the villages described in this volume represent in microcosm the changes that are transpiring in American rural life in general. Urbanization, or as some sociologists call it, secularization of life is proceeding at a rapid pace. Communication and transportation devices which characterize contemporary life place the remotest corners in instantaneous contact with the world. The diffusion of urban traits to the countryside is everywhere apparent. Farming is becoming more mechanized and efficient. Farmers are declining in numbers and farms increasing in size.

<sup>4</sup> Nelson, *op. cit.*, p. 275.

<sup>5</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 276.

<sup>6</sup> Carl C. Taylor, assisted by Walter Goldschmidt and Glen Taggart, *Patterns of Rural Settlement*, Columbia Basin Joint Investigations, Bureau of Reclamation, Department of the Interior (Washington, D. C., 1947), p. 26.

<sup>7</sup> Nelson, *op. cit.*, p. 276.

<sup>8</sup> Nelson, *op. cit.*, pp. 249-260.

<sup>9</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 23-54. Also see Joseph A. Geddes and Carmen D. Fredrickson, *Utah Housing in Its Group and Community Aspects*, AES Bull. 321, Utah State Agricultural College (Logan, Utah, 1945), pp. 73-77.



Life becomes more impersonal, mutual aid declines, and contractual forms of association increase. Formal organizations multiply as new interests arise—economic, social, recreational, educational. New occupations come into being as specialization and division of labor grow more elaborate. Homogeneity of the population gives way to increasing heterogeneity. Attitudes change. The sense of community suffers as cleavages develop around special interests. These developments are clearly evident in the Mormon villages today, as they are in the communities of the United States elsewhere.<sup>10</sup>

#### RIMROCK COMPARED WITH NELSON'S VILLAGES

##### **Persistence of the Village Pattern.—**

In Utah, Nelson found the persistence of the village pattern dependent upon the physical environment of the communities. In some areas, the trend was definitely away from the village pattern and toward either dispersed dwelling on farms or a line village pattern. In Rimrock, the village pattern appears secure. In 1950, there were 31 families and 172 individuals in Rimrock out of a total of 41 families and 244 individuals who lived in the blocked area of the village. If one accepts living within a half mile of the village center as the definition of village dweller, then there were 38 village-dwelling families out of the total of 41. Moreover, a town lot was divided into eight house lots in the winter of 1950 and placed for sale by the local church ward which had purchased it from the estate of a deceased former resident. Thus, while there is some expansion along two roads leading out of the village—one toward the nearest large town and shopping center, and one to the storage reservoir—there is immediate likelihood of residential building in the village itself.

Since two of the Utah villages studied by Nelson are comparable to Rimrock in regard to persistence of the vil-

lage pattern, this characteristic does not distinguish Rimrock in any significant way from villages nearer the center of the Mormon domain. Yet some comment deserves to be made. One question is if physical terrain is an important factor in keeping the village pattern in Rimrock. The peripheral location of Rimrock, whose inhabitants are very conscious of their Mormonism, sets up a situation where a move from Rimrock is a move away from the Mormon area. This would not be true in the same sense in any of the Utah villages studied and reported in Nelson's research. The most that can be said as a result of the comparison made here is that Rimrock is maintaining its Mormon character, in terms of persistence of the village pattern, as well as any village reported in Nelson's work. Six months of participant observation in the village suggests that the fact of being culturally peripheral is more important than the physical characteristics in making this so.

**Secularization.**—Certain aspects of urbanization have been felt in Rimrock as they have been in rural villages, Mormon and non-Mormon, throughout the country. Moving pictures are shown every week in the local "churchhouse." Almost every house has a radio. Non-church publications are subscribed to and read. There is a local elementary and high school, which is part of the county and state school system. Many automobiles are owned in the village, and trips of 45 miles to the nearest large town for shopping and recreation are common. Moreover, employment outside the village is fairly common and has been since early days of settlement when Mormon pioneers took jobs in temporary lumber camps throughout the region. Thirty-two Mormon youths from the village were called into the service in the Second World War, and all returned to dwell in the village. Thus connections with and influence

<sup>10</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 276-277.

from the outside non-Mormon world are frequent and common.

Yet if we understand "secularization of life" to indicate a departure from certain earlier Mormon standards of rural village community life, Rimrock has not been affected to anywhere near the degree indicated by Nelson's study of the Utah villages. Four indices of secularization, or trends away from earlier Mormon ideals, which Nelson found "clearly evident" in the Utah villages are discussed below as to their presence in Rimrock.

(1) *Decline in the number of farmers.*—While farms have increased in size in Rimrock as in the other Mormon villages, there has not been a drop in the proportion of farmers in the population. The Mormon preference for agriculture keeps farming a preferred, and often the preferred, form of earning a livelihood. Also, those who are employed outside the village remain engaged in part-time agriculture.

(2) *Multiplication of formal organizations (outside the church).*—Rimrock is still an old-fashioned Mormon village, in a structural sense. That means that the church and its auxiliary organizations make up the organized center of village life. Priesthood councils play the role of civic bodies elsewhere. There is an irrigation and a land-and-cattle company, both cooperatively organized and both emerging from the church organization. The only organization in the village of a purely secular origin (outside of political bodies like the school board) is the Parent-Teacher Association. It was formed within the last few years. Its main moving spirits were a non-Mormon woman married to a Mormon husband and a Mormon woman married to a Gentile husband. It is definitely marginal so far as strategic influence upon village life is concerned, although it has enlisted wide community support. There

have been formed no other voluntary organizations outside the church. The local Boy Scout troop is part of the church youth movement.

(3) *Increase in impersonality and contractual relationships.*—There are contractual, that is to say, business relationships, between residents. Yet they are embedded within a larger context of face-to-face relationships. The villagers are all conscious of their fellowship in the Mormon gospel and are all active in the local organizations of the church. Moreover, this religious and social bond is backed up and impenetrated by the bonds of consanguinity and affinity. Most of the villagers are related in one way or another and are, moreover, connected by ties of blood and marriage to the rest of Mormondom. Family lineage and religious fellowship are so close and so important that it would be impossible for sheerly impersonal relationships to become of dominant importance in social relations.

(4) *Homogeneity gives way to increasing heterogeneity; the sense of community suffers as cleavages develop around special interests.*—The loss of a sense of community and the decline in homogeneity have not progressed far in Rimrock. Six months of close participant-observation revealed a deep sense of community. Reactions to current problems, repair of streets, volunteer work to construct a new high school, and the like, evoked a response which bears testimony to a vital sense of community. Special interests there are, but they have not split the village into contending factions. There is a great discrepancy in the distribution of wealth. Some villagers are quite wealthy while others have had to depend upon aid from church relief. In 1950, a year of great prosperity in the cattle market and therefore a good year for many Rimrock farmers, seven families received

aid from church relief. These included some older couples. Yet there are not two communities—one of the rich and one of the poor. There is village solidarity both in consciousness and in action. Moreover, since the foundation of the village there have been family cleavages. These persist, although they may in fact be weaker now than at an earlier period. Yet these do not prove themselves divisive in a larger sense of village unity and especially in dealings with outsiders where complete solidarity is usually shown.

On these four criteria, Rimrock shows itself to be far less secularized than the villages studied by Nelson. In this sense, Rimrock is more like a Mormon village of a generation ago in Utah than like the present villages reported in Nelson's resurvey.

#### SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Rimrock, by the criteria of Nelson's study, is far less secularized and far more congruent with the ideal of the Mormon village as established by the pioneers throughout Mormondom than any of the Utah villages studied by him. The chief difference between this northern New Mexico village and those of Nelson's study is that Rimrock is located on the periphery of the Mormon culture area. Except for size, there are no other outstanding facts about or factors influencing Rimrock social and economic development which distinguish it from the villages in Nelson's sample. Yet size is in large part a result of the geographic location of Rimrock on the periphery of the Mormon area. Most of the land around the village is owned by non-Mormons, and much of it is part of an Indian reservation. Thus, position has made it impossible for the village to expand in the last fifty years. On the other hand, its peculiarity and relative isolation have kept it from being assimilated into any other larger groupings.

Isolation and peripheral location ap-

pear to deepen and make more important the ties of Rimrock with the rest of Mormondom. Church conferences in the stake (Arizona) and in Salt Lake City are attended by Rimrock people. Alone, the only village of its kind in the area, Rimrock feels its peculiarity. The highly developed educational system of the Latter-day Saints' Church inculcates into the villagers the belief that they are "gathered unto Zion," that they are "a peculiar, a covenant people." Their own position on the edge of Mormondom makes it possible for them to experience their own distinction, both in their consciousness of themselves as a group apart with its own history and in the attitudes of outsiders toward them. Removed from the center of Mormondom, they cannot take it for granted. Alone and needing the consciousness of membership in the larger whole as well as the tangible financial aid the church has given them from time to time, the Rimrock Mormons still experience their own distinctness from the Gentile world—from Babylon—in a way reminiscent of the earlier generations of Mormon pioneers. All Mormons are rightly aware of the distinction involved here, but residence on the periphery—where the contrast of Saint and Gentile, mine and thine, is a continual and constant reminder—never permits the memory to become merely a memory.

Moreover, located on the edge, Rimrock Mormons contact the Mormons of the center only under the most auspicious circumstances and in the most favorable representatives. Travelling apostles of the church and others of the kind come from time to time to Rimrock. Rimrock Mormons see the best side of the church when they attend stake and general conferences in Arizona and at Salt Lake City. In this they are like converts in mission countries who see only the exemplary conduct of the missionaries and not the sins of the fellow members at home.

Isolation thus not only enhances the ties with the church, but also makes the interaction of periphery and center a kind which will enhance Rimrock's respect for the church still more.

The Mormon consciousness of Rimrock has the alertness of the outpost about it. This is to be gathered from attitudes expressed in church attendance and activities, or in oral declaration at sacrament meetings or in conversation. Moreover, an application of the criteria of Nelson's study reveals that the social relations, the social attitudes, and the social organization of the village have not felt, in any very noticeable way, the impact of the secularizing tendencies felt elsewhere.

This comparison suggests one answer. Peripheral position cannot create strong belief, but given strong belief, peripheral position and isolation can act to strengthen belief and the in-group solidarity based upon the consensus of common belief. This will be reflected in the social organization evolved in the development of group life. Isolation will tend to remove the group from outside influences and to make it resistant to those which impinge upon it. In the latter, especially, geographic position has been of great importance in Rimrock.

#### COMMENT

by Lowry Nelson†

Thomas O'Dea has drawn some interesting contrasts between Rimrock, in New Mexico, and the two villages of Escalante and Ephraim, in Utah. His description of Rimrock as less secularized than the Utah villages—as I described them—is understandable in terms of geographical and cultural isolation. I would say that Escalante, 300 miles from Salt Lake City—the center of Mormondom—is less secularized than is Ephraim, which is 125 miles

distant. But still, these villages are in the same state, and for them Salt Lake City is not only the ecclesiastical center but the political and trade center as well. Thus, contacts are more numerous and more direct with the "home base" than would be true of Rimrock.

Rimrock, surrounded as it is by non-Mormons, apparently has the earmarks of a cultural island. It retains its "sacred" character by virtue of both geographic and cultural influences. O'Dea correctly states my thesis that the village system is maintained in southern Utah—in contrast with the area along the Wasatch Front—because of the limits imposed by such factors as the sparse rainfall and the limited arable and irrigable land. There is no reason to expect any important expansion in the irrigable area around Escalante and Ephraim. And there is no reason to expect that people will begin to build their houses out on the farms. I wonder if, in addition to the centripetal cultural influence mentioned by O'Dea, there is not a similar geographic factor operating in Rimrock. My point is that once a community (village) is established on irrigated land which has no possibility of being expanded beyond the original area, there is little likelihood of the population dispersing on separate farms. In the case of Rimrock, O'Dea's point that if the people move outside the village they move into a non-Mormon area is a sound one. In short, there are both internal and external reasons for keeping them as they are.

Living in the midst of non-Mormons, the people of Rimrock no doubt regard themselves as a show window of Mormonism and are therefore more likely to be notably conformists with the traditional Mormon values. In his implied hypothesis—that this conformity may vary on the distance from the center—I think there is an interesting field to study.

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## INFORMAL PARTICIPATION OF ACTIVE AND INACTIVE FORMAL PARTICIPANTS\*

by Emory J. Brown†

### ABSTRACT

This paper examines the relationship between formal and informal participation of individuals in three Pennsylvania rural communities. Data concerning the range and intensity of informal activities were used to test the hypothesis that a positive relationship exists between formal and informal participation of individuals in rural society. In general, this hypothesis was substantiated by the evidence on eighteen selected types of informal activities. However, more research is needed, not only on the roles played within various informal groups but also on participation in other areas of informal activities than those reported in this paper.

The purpose of this paper is to analyze the relationship between formal and informal participation. Studies consistently show that participants in formal organizations are selectively drawn from the upper social strata. This leads to the questions: What social participation patterns characterize the nonparticipants in formal organizations? Is participation in formal organizations also associated with a high degree of participation in informal social situations?

While formal participation refers to activities in formally organized groups, informal participation refers to taking part in social activities which generally do not involve consciously formulated procedures for regulating group behavior. Usually there are no elected leaders or formal meetings, but natural leaders may operate and the group may get together at fairly regular intervals. The duration of such groupings may vary from that of a transient conversational contact between two people to that of a card-playing group which functions according to custom. The roles of the participants are not rigidly fixed, and activities often are spontaneous.

For both kinds of participation there are two characteristics of the participants: (1) They are interested in the activity or purpose of the group, and (2) they have a need for the socialization or companionship which accompanies the activity. For some people the socialization process becomes almost an end in itself, while for others the activity which is the objective of the group is more important than the satisfaction gained from the social relationships.

Individuals differ on the extent to which they have a need for social participation. While some individuals seem well adjusted with few personal contacts, other individuals have a need disposition for social interaction with many people. The level of social participation is influenced by the individual's feeling of social adequacy, so that, whether motivated by a desire for the activity interest or the social relationships of the group, participants achieve satisfaction in either formal or informal groups.

In general, active participants in formal organizations are occupants of higher status positions—as measured by income, education, and occupation—than are those who are relatively inactive in formal organizations. The personal and social characteristics of the active formal participants influence them to be interested in many types of activities oriented both to the indi-

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vidual and the community, to develop a broad range of social relationships, and to feel socially adequate in various types of group situations.

Thus, a reasonable hypothesis is that a positive relationship exists between an individual's participation in formal organizations and his participation in informal activities, or that active and inactive formal participants exhibit corresponding behavior patterns with regard to informal activities. Data pertaining to selected informal activities will be analyzed to test this hypothesis.

Results of previous research on the relationship between formal and informal participation of individuals in rural society have not been in complete agreement. While Anderson<sup>1</sup> reported, "... there is only a slight relationship, if any, between the informal and formal participation of these Ontario County, New York, families," Mangus and Cottam<sup>2</sup> found that "persons in the sample who scored highest in formal participation were more active in informal types of social participation, but this statement cannot be generalized to the state as a whole." In comparing individuals on levels of participation in formal, semiformal, and informal activities, Duncan and Artis<sup>3</sup> report that "individuals who participated to a high degree in one type were found likely to do so also in the other types."

<sup>1</sup> W. A. Anderson, *Rural Social Participation and the Family Life Cycle*, Part II, Memoir 318, Cornell University AES (Ithaca, N. Y., Jan., 1953), p. 14.

Anderson analyzes informal participation in terms of family units rather than individuals, the unit of study in this paper.

<sup>2</sup> A. R. Mangus and H. R. Cottam, *Level of Living, Social Participation and Adjustment of Ohio Farm People*, Ohio AES Bull. 624 (Wooster, Ohio, Sept., 1946), p. 39.

<sup>3</sup> O. D. Duncan and J. W. Artis, *Social Stratification in a Pennsylvania Rural Community*, Pennsylvania State College AES Bull. 543 (State College, Pa., Oct., 1951), pp. 36-37.

The data analyzed here are a part of a larger study of formal participation.<sup>4</sup> Data were collected from 624 married adults in three Pennsylvania rural communities, in the summer of 1948.<sup>5</sup> These were predominantly general and dairy farming communities having no large industries. The populations of the community centers varied from about 500 to about 2,000. Approximately 200 people were interviewed in each community—one half being among those most active in formal organizations and the other half being among those least active. Approximately the same number of men and women were selected in each community. In the analysis of the data, individuals with a Chapin Scale score of less than 15 were called "inactive"; those with a score of 15 or more were called "active."<sup>6</sup> The active participants in formal organizations had a higher socio-economic status than the inactives, as measured by income, education, and occupation.

#### TYPES OF INFORMAL ACTIVITIES

The active and inactive participants in formal organizations responded to a

<sup>4</sup> E. J. Brown, "Elements Associated with Activity and Inactivity in Formal Organizations" (unpublished Ph.D. thesis, Michigan State College, East Lansing, 1952).

<sup>5</sup> In some cases both husband and wife were interviewed, and in some cases only one spouse was interviewed. Complete couples (husband and wife) accounted for 41 per cent of the respondents. The discrepancy between the number of individuals interviewed and the number of cases for which data are reported in the tables is due to incomplete data.

<sup>6</sup> F. S. Chapin, *The Social Participation Scale* (Minneapolis, Minn.: University of Minnesota Press, 1937). This scale is based on a score of 1 for each organization of which a person is a member, 2 for each organization he attends, 3 for each organization to which he makes a contribution, 4 for each organization committee on which he serves, and 5 for each office he holds. The points are totaled for each individual to get his Chapin Scale score. The arithmetic mean for the "actives" was 32.2, and for the "inactives," 5.5.

question concerning eighteen selected types of informal activities, such as visiting, movies, dances, parties, sports activities, and automobile pleasure-riding. They were asked to indicate the average number of times they engaged in the activities in the twelve months preceding the interview.

Some of the eighteen activities are perhaps more nearly "semiformal" than informal, in that certain skills are required for them or they are sponsored by formal organizations and require a great deal of planning, rather than developing spontaneously. But even these seem nearer the informal than the formal type in the kind of participation they require, and so are classed as informal here.

The actives took part in more types of informal activities than the inactives. Almost half of the actives and about a tenth of the inactives had participated (at least once) in 12 or more of the 18 informal activities during the year (Table 1). On the other hand, 15 per cent of the inactives and 2 per cent of the actives participated in three or fewer.

TABLE 1. DISTRIBUTION OF ACTIVE AND INACTIVE FORMAL PARTICIPANTS, BY NUMBER OF INFORMAL ACTIVITIES ENGAGED IN, THREE PENNSYLVANIA RURAL COMMUNITIES, 1948

Number of informal activities engaged in*	Inactive (N = 278)	Active (N = 345)
	Per cent	Per cent
3 or fewer.....	15	2
4- 7 .....	41	13
8-11 .....	33	38
12 or more.....	11	47
Total.....	100	100

P < .001.

\*Of the 18 about which questions were asked.

A further analysis was made of the degree of participation in these informal activities. For this analysis certain combinations of activities were made, so that the 18 separate activities

became 10 groups or types of activities. For example, attendance at football games, basketball games, baseball games, and hockey games became one group; and other activities were similarly combined on the basis of common elements.

The actives participated in all informal activities more often than the inactives (Table 2). In the year preceding the interview, 11 per cent of the inactives and 3 per cent of the actives had no meals with relatives, friends, or neighbors; one-half of the inactives and three-fourths of the actives participated in this type of activity twelve or more times. The actives took part more often than the inactives in visits with relatives, friends, or neighbors; automobile pleasure rides; picnics and banquets; fairs and festivals; movies; dances; card parties; athletic events; and hunting and fishing.

Twenty-eight per cent of the actives and 4 per cent of the inactives attended one or more dances; 53 per cent of the actives and 18 per cent of the inactives reported participating in one or more card parties. Somewhat more than two-fifths of the actives and about a third of the inactives said they had participated in hunting and fishing, or both. Hunting and fishing require a certain amount of leisure time and often are somewhat expensive. The respondents in younger ages tend to report participation in this activity more often than those in older age groups.

The respondents were asked about participation in football, basketball, baseball, and hockey, either as spectators or as team members. Few of those interviewed were active team members or coaches in these sports, so that most of the participation was of the spectator type. Even though our culture includes sports as an important complex, less than two-thirds of the most active formal participants reported attendance at any of the four sports

TABLE 2. DISTRIBUTION OF ACTIVE AND INACTIVE FORMAL PARTICIPANTS BY FREQUENCY OF PARTICIPATION IN SPECIFIC INFORMAL ACTIVITIES, THREE PENNSYLVANIA RURAL COMMUNITIES, 1948\*

Number of times per year each activity engaged in	Meals with relatives, friends, or neighbors		Other visits with relatives, friends, or neighbors		Automobile pleasure rides		Picnics, banquets, and church dinners		Fairs and festivals	
	Inactive (N = 271)	Active (N = 336)	Inactive (N = 271)	Active (N = 336)	Inactive (N = 251)	Active (N = 325)	Inactive (N = 256)	Active (N = 337)	Inactive (N = 337)	Active (N = 337)
	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent
None .....	11	3	6	4	36	12	32	4	22	10
1-11 .....	39	21	18	7	7	10	62	73	76	84
12 or more .....	50	76	76	89	57	78	6	23	2	6
Total .....	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Number of times per year each activity engaged in	Movies		Dances		Card parties		Athletic events		Hunting and fishing	
	Inactive (N = 251)	Active (N = 321)	Inactive (N = 228)	Active (N = 288)	Inactive (N = 231)	Active (N = 297)	Inactive (N = 248)	Active (N = 309)	Inactive (N = 243)	Active (N = 307)
	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent
None .....	43	22	96	72	82	47	68	39	67	59
1-11 .....	21	33	1	23	11	29	18	33	17	24
12 or more .....	36	45	3	5	7	24	14	28	16	17
Total .....	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

\*Differences between active and inactive participants are significant at the .001 level, except in the case of hunting and fishing, where the difference is significant at the .10 level.

TABLE 3. DISTRIBUTION OF ACTIVE AND INACTIVE FORMAL PARTICIPANTS BY NUMBER OF VILLAGES OR CITIES VISITED ONCE A MONTH OR OFTENER, THREE PENNSYLVANIA RURAL COMMUNITIES, 1948

Number of places visited	Men		Women	
	Inactive (N = 128)	Active (N = 164)	Inactive (N = 144)	Active (N = 168)
	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent
0-2 .....	26	15	43	32
3-4 .....	55	39	47	50
5 or more.....	19	46	10	18
Total.....	100	100	100	100

 $P < .001.$  $P < .001.$ 

listed, and only three-tenths of the inactives reported such activity. The women who attended athletic events were selected primarily from high formal participants.

Attending fairs, celebrations, and carnivals is a rather pervasive form of informal activity in the communities studied; about nine-tenths of the actives and three-fourths of the inactives reported that type of behavior. All communities held several such events each year.

About four-fifths of the actives and three-fifths of the inactives attended at least one movie. Two of the three communities had a movie theater in the community center.

About nine-tenths of the actives and two-thirds of the inactives reported automobile pleasure-riding. The difference is partially a function of economic status, for those individuals who did not participate in pleasure-riding usually did not have the necessary transportation facilities.

More actives than inactives (about 9 out of 10 compared with 6 out of 10) took part in at least one picnic, banquet, or church dinner. Many of the churches in these communities sponsored church banquets, which probably are selective in attracting those who have a religious value orientation.

#### NUMBER OF VILLAGES OR CITIES VISITED

The number of villages or cities visited once a month or more often may serve as an index to the geographical area within which social contacts are likely to occur. The actives reported visiting more villages or cities than the inactives. Forty-six per cent of the active men and 19 per cent of the inactive men visited five or more villages or cities; 18 per cent of the active women and 10 per cent of the inactive women reported visiting that many towns or cities (Table 3).

#### PERSONAL INTERACTION

The number of places visited does not indicate the amount of personal interaction. To provide another index to the volume of social stimuli, the interviewees were asked how many people they talked to during, before, and after working hours, not including members of their immediate households. The actives reported talking with more people than the inactives (Table 4). About 86 per cent of the active men and 69 per cent of the inactive men talked to five or more people per day; 68 per cent of the active women and 54 per cent of the inactive women interacted with the same number of people.

TABLE 4. DISTRIBUTION OF ACTIVE AND INACTIVE FORMAL PARTICIPANTS BY NUMBER OF PEOPLE TALKED TO DAILY, THREE PENNSYLVANIA RURAL COMMUNITIES, 1948

Number of persons talked to	Men		Women	
	Inactive (N = 123)	Active (N = 161)	Inactive (N = 139)	Active (N = 165)
	<i>Per cent</i>	<i>Per cent</i>	<i>Per cent</i>	<i>Per cent</i>
0-4 .....	31	14	46	32
5-24 .....	48	42	44	57
25 or more .....	21	44	10	11
Total .....	100	100	100	100

 $P < .001.$  $P < .05.$ 

TABLE 5. DISTRIBUTION OF ACTIVE AND INACTIVE FORMAL PARTICIPANTS BY WHETHER OR NOT THEY TOOK A VACATION, THREE PENNSYLVANIA RURAL COMMUNITIES, 1948

Whether vacation taken	Men		Women	
	Inactive (N = 130)	Active (N = 168)	Inactive (N = 145)	Active (N = 171)
	<i>Per cent</i>	<i>Per cent</i>	<i>Per cent</i>	<i>Per cent</i>
No .....	80	52	81	53
Yes .....	20	48	19	47
Total .....	100	100	100	100

 $P < .001.$  $P < .001.$ 

## TAKING A VACATION

Taking or not taking a vacation is usually a function of the occupation in which one engages. While slightly more than a third of the respondents took a vacation in the year preceding the interview, it was usually the actives who did so. About half of the actives and a fifth of the inactives spent some time in activity that they called a vacation (Table 5). The farmers in the communities studied generally did not take vacations, because dairy farming requires a rigorous daily work schedule. Many small businessmen felt they could not get away from their place of business for any length of time. The farmers and businessmen who took a vacation were in the higher income and educational categories.

## SUMMARY

This paper has investigated the association of extensity and intensity of

participation in informal activities with high or low formal participation. In all types of informal activities included in this study, the high formal participants took part more extensively and more intensively than the low formal participants.

Research is needed to investigate other areas of informal activities, such as informal participation in the work group and relationships within the family. Recent studies in industry show the importance of the informal organization and the satisfactions associated with interacting in such groups. An adequate understanding of the social development and satisfactions of participants and nonparticipants in formal organizations can result only from more empirical studies of all social contacts, whether they occur within the community, within the family, or on the job.



## THE RURAL NEIGHBORHOOD CONCEPT

by Bruce L. Melvin†

### ABSTRACT

The *neighborhood* as a concept and as a unit for study in rural sociology is being questioned. The concept *neighborhood* came into rural sociology in this country as a tool to be used in the rehabilitation of rural life. A comparison of the "neighborhood" in American rural life with the "neighborhood" in other countries—the agricultural village—shows that the two are not the same. Rural life has been and is characterized by special-interest and friendship groups, and in the study of rural localities the sociologists have confused *neighborhood* with *neighborliness*.

The idea of the neighborhood as a sociological concept and as a sociological entity to be used in scientific analysis is being challenged.<sup>1</sup> This paper is related to that challenge. It consists of: (1) an examination of the growth of the neighborhood idea, (2) the presentation of a few facts about foreign agricultural villages, regarded as the equivalent of the American rural neighborhood, and (3) an evaluation of the extent to which the concept corresponds to reality, past and present. The discussion of these three points does not in any way deny that the concept has been a valuable tool for ministers, extension agents, and others working with rural people during the past forty years.

### EMERGENCE OF THE CONCEPT

Charles Horton Cooley, one of the first to use the term *neighborhood*, in 1911 wrote,

By primary groups I mean those characterized by intimate face-to-face association and cooperation. The result of intimate association, psychologically, is a certain fusion of individualities in a common whole, so that one's very self, for many purposes at least, is the com-

mon life and purpose of the group....

The most important spheres of this intimate association and cooperation—though by no means the only ones—are the family, the play-group of children, and the neighborhood or community group of elders.<sup>2</sup>

This author did not distinguish between the neighborhood and community as primary groups; and, all in all, rural sociologists have not done so except in terms of trade areas.

The need for a precise term in the study of rural life arose from the growing concern about the conditions of country living and rural institutions. The report of the Roosevelt Country Life Commission, made in 1917, painted a sorry picture of empty rural churches, declining rural schools, and abandoned farms. Kenyon L. Butterfield, secretary of the Commission, and Sir Horace Plunkett, an Irish friend of President Theodore Roosevelt, followed with their own writings, defining more clearly the problems of the rural church, rural schools, rural-urban migration, abandoned farms, and what appeared to be the decline of the traditionally "best" in rural America.

One man who took it upon himself to do something about the saving and regeneration of rural religious life was C. J. Galpin, first a rural minister in Wisconsin and then on the staff of the

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<sup>1</sup> Walter M. Kollmorgen and Robert W. Harrison, "The Search for the Rural Community," *Agricultural History*, Vol. 20, No. 1 (Jan., 1946); and Walter L. Slocum and Herman M. Case, "Are Neighborhoods Meaningful Social Groups?" *Rural Sociology*, XVIII:1 (Mar., 1953).

<sup>2</sup> Charles Horton Cooley, *Social Organization* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1911), pp. 23 f.

University of Wisconsin College of Agriculture. He wanted to know what, how, and where to attack the problem of the declining country churches. In studying his problem, he concluded that the trade area of a village or hamlet formed the "boundary of an actual, if not legal, community within which the apparent entanglement of human life is resolved into a fairly unitary system of interrelations."<sup>3</sup>

A second religious leader, Warren H. Wilson, defined the rural community as an area within a team-haul radius about a center. As he saw the community, before the days of the automobile, it was the larger social whole outside the household; and in it the people could satisfy their needs from birth to death.<sup>4</sup> Dwight Sanderson, who came into rural sociology from entomology following World War I, attributed to the so-called "neighborhood" (community) the status of "a natural social unit," in the sense that a hive of bees is regarded as a natural biological unit. His purpose in so defining an area was to "establish the sociological significance of the rural community" because "sociologists have failed to recognize the locality group as the fundamental form of human association."<sup>5</sup> Following these leads, early students of rural sociology, as well as more recent investigators, have tried to find the geographic group with which the individual could identify himself for meeting his individual needs and in turn take his place in a democratic society. Cooley and Sanderson identified the American neighborhood with the agricultural village

of other countries. The American neighborhood and the foreign agricultural village were to them sociologically the same—the primary group outside the family.<sup>6</sup>

#### THE AGRICULTURAL VILLAGE

A German sociologist, Ferdinand Toennies, gave significance to the German village as a sociological entity when, in 1887, he published a little book, *Gemeinschaft und Gesellschaft*, translated as *The Neighborhood and the Great Society*. Toennies took his term *gemeinschaft* from the German *Gemeinde*, generally a well-defined area with a village.<sup>7</sup> (Sometimes there was more than one village.) To Toennies, the concept of the *gemeinde*, or neighborhood, "describes the general character of living together in rural villages."<sup>8</sup>

The German agricultural village was—and is yet, except where influenced by modern technology and disruptive governmental forces—an economic, social, educational, religious, and governmental unit. The same holds true for the agricultural villages in most parts of the world. In Japan, this unit is known as a *mura* (or as a segment of a *mura*—*buraku*), and in Korea, a *myun*. Though the chief source of living in these countries is the cultivation of the soil, many villages own forest and/or pasture land, from which the families receive their proportionate incomes. The cultivated fields are generally owned by individuals or families, but cooperation among the vil-

<sup>3</sup> C. J. Galpin, *Social Anatomy of the Agricultural Community*, University of Wisconsin, AES Research Bull. No. 34 (Madison, Wis., 1915).

<sup>4</sup> Warren H. Wilson, *Evolution of the Country Community* (Boston: The Pilgrim Press, 1912).

<sup>5</sup> Dwight Sanderson, *The Rural Community* (Boston: Ginn and Co., 1932), pp. 13 and 595.

<sup>6</sup> Cooley, *op. cit.*, pp. 25 f. Also, Sanderson (*op. cit.*) based his whole volume on the assumption that, since people in most parts of the world lived in agricultural villages, the so-called neighborhoods and communities in American life must be sociologically the same.

<sup>7</sup> Ferdinand Toennies, *Fundamental Concepts of Sociology* (trans. by Charles P. Loomis; New York: American Book Co., 1940), p. 48.

<sup>8</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 49.

lagers is the practice. The development of formal cooperatives was a result of the nature of the villages. In Korea, cooperatives first came into existence in A.D. 26, and there they have always been more than economic. They are collective forms set up to help the villagers help each other and to assist the group in its relations with outside forces. In Japan, as John Embree indicates, the *buraku* "takes care of its own affairs, such as funerals, festivals, roads, and bridges on a cooperative basis."<sup>9</sup>

The shrines, temples, and churches make for integrated villages. According to Embree, Suye Mura had seventeen *buraku*, each a "natural community" with about twenty houses; each had a small wooden structure housing a Buddhist deity. In Germany, each village commonly has only one church—Catholic or Lutheran. The priest or minister plays an important role not only in a religious way but in everything the people do. Practically all villagers belong to the church and pay taxes for its support. Besides serving the individual religiously, the church, by means of its rituals, ceremonies, and holidays tends to knit the people into a unified group. Furthermore, the recreational and educational institutions and organizations generally fit into the religious programs furthered by the church.

In Germany, another village agency that binds the households together is the *stube*. It is something very different from the bar in the United States; it is the informal social center. Here the men of the village meet together to drink beer and wine, to sing, to play cards and checkers, and to hold general discussions. In the *stube*, the mayor—who belongs to the upper stratum socially and governmentally—is given informal honor. Moreover, the mayor

is the representative of governmental authority for the village, and as such his place has its roots deep in tradition. Added to the *stube* as an integrative force are the habits of the people; in winter and summer they walk and ride bicycles in family and friendly village groupings on the roads and on the paths of the village forest land.

Hallowed by time, the village unity of the East is probably stronger than that of Germany and is best illustrated by the fact that in the past a village was held responsible for criminal acts of its inhabitants. It was not strange that the Japanese burned seven villages to the ground in Korea when, in 1905, the Korean guerrillas made raids on the Japanese occupation army. Out of the integrative nature of the Far Eastern village two of the strongest loyalties found any place in the world evolved—that to family and that to friends. Indeed, being a *friend* is enough to qualify any person for anything.

Villages in the countries mentioned have old traditions which set the pattern of thinking, conduct, pride, and other aspects of a common life for the residents. Their traditions are usually tied to a physical structure, such as a church or a castle, or to a real or legendary personality whose exploits and accomplishments are reiterated from generation to generation. Have we in the United States ever had such integrated rural units? Possibly, but if so they were the exception—such as the Mormon villages of Utah or the French villages of Louisiana—and not the rule. No one can deny that rural localities with identifying names have existed throughout most of the rural United States, and in isolated cases may have had fairly definite boundaries. But for most of the country the situation was surely quite different from that of Toennies' neighborhood concept, and, as already noted, it was this type of agricultural village to

<sup>9</sup> John Embree, *Suye Mura, a Japanese Village* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1939), p. 26.

which Cooley referred in his *Social Organization*, and that Sanderson used in his book *The Rural Community*.

#### HISTORICAL APPRAISAL

In order to justify the above conclusion, the sociological characteristics and the life and change in selected rural areas in Iowa and New York State over the past half century are now briefly reviewed.

The first case is that of Savannah, Iowa, a rural locality in the southern part of the state. Savannah, in 1900, could have been designated a "neighborhood" (or "community") by definitions later accepted; and had there been a county agent, the hamlet would have been a point of contact with the farmers. At that time Savannah had twenty-five or thirty houses, one store, a blacksmith shop, one church building used by two denominations, a post office in the store, a barber shop, a doctor, and a grist mill. During the winter season, a literary society held meetings in the church building. Nearly anything farmers needed could be purchased there, except "Sunday clothes." Except for livestock, everything farmers sold was handled by the storekeeper. Because of the post office, the store was an informal meeting place, especially on Saturday afternoons. This neighborhood could have been defined, however, only by the area served by the post office. Rather than living in the village, as do farmers in Germany and the East, the farm families served by the post office lived on their land. They came from four school districts and two townships, but in at least three of the school districts and both townships there were some families who got their mail and went to church in other places. Though most of the farm families within a radius of three miles probably traded in Savannah and met religious needs there, the exchange of work, visiting, and mutual assistance activities (which may be

called "neighborliness") were with families who lived within a radius of a mile or so of each individual farm family and with old friends and relatives, without regard to whether they lived within the area served by the post office.

By 1910, two rural free delivery routes had penetrated the locality to take the place of the post office; telephone lines from two county-seat towns, located ten miles to the northeast and southwest, respectively, had been extended into the locality; a second store had been built; and each of the two religious denominations had erected its own church. The literary society had ceased to function, and the grist mill no longer ground grain. Later, with the extension of mail-order business into the locality, storekeepers and farmers became somewhat antagonistic. After World War I, farmers who had grown to adulthood in the area surrounding the hamlet tried to "save the community" by building a community house; but interest in the undertaking lasted only so long as it was under construction. By that time the youth of high-school age had begun to attend the county-seat high school.

Today there remain only one church which still holds services and one store, the latter doing business in the old community house. The church draws its membership from a much wider area than formerly, while some from within the immediate vicinity attend the county-seat religious services. The store probably draws more of its trade from outside the old trade area than from within, by means of a truck which reaches certain areas isolated by dirt roads.

The so-called "rural neighborhoods" and "communities" of New York State, to take a second illustration, seem to have followed somewhat the same trends, with the smaller places first declining, as did Savannah—though the change in New York State began ear-



lier. One of the first manifestations of diversity of interests within the New York rural areas was the coming of the Grange. The Grange was a special-interest group, and its farmers' supply and marketing activities were in opposition to village businessmen. After the First World War, the Farm Bureau was organized and, in accordance with farmers' interests, furthered the division between the farmers and merchants.

By the 1920's, the special-interest groups within New York rural areas were quite well defined. Marathon, a village studied in 1928-29, will serve as a case illustration. In this village of less than a thousand population, the most influential merchants made up the Chamber of Commerce, to which only one farmer belonged. The village had four churches; the membership of two came largely from the village, and the farmers made up the majority of the membership in the other two. A Grange also met in the village, but the merchants did not belong. Other details of organization might be given, but all would lead to the same conclusion—that the villagers and the surrounding farm families did not constitute a neighborhood group in any integrated sense. In 1927, Kolb and Wileiden recognized this fact in their Wisconsin studies, but much ink has been "spilled" in marking "neighborhood" boundaries since that time.

#### AS OF TODAY

In a state where great emphasis has been given to the ideas of "neighborhood" and "community," a county 4-H Club leader recently asked school supervisors, the farm extension agent, the home demonstration agent, and leaders of farm organizations of the county to locate the neighborhood and community boundaries in which their organizations worked. The response showed no unanimity in the boundaries and little agreement in concepts. The

county has 15 centralized school districts, 3 city schools, and 29 one-room county schools. There are 32 Farm Bureau centers, 110 organized home demonstration groups, 19 organizations dealing with agricultural stabilization and conservation, and 100 boys' and girls' clubs. This same 4-H Club leader asked colleagues in other counties whether the neighborhood and community delineations by state college sociologists had been of use in promoting their work. Here are partial replies from three leaders:

"I remember the bulletin; I read it over with some interest. Frankly, I didn't make any practical use of the bulletin in my work."

"So far as I have been able to discover, neither the home demonstration agent nor any of the [office] secretaries (one goes back 10 years) nor I know of the bulletin *Communities in* ———."

"I'd like to know more about the publication entitled *The Social* ——— of ——— County. Nobody here in the office is familiar with it."

The difference between today and thirty to fifty years ago in rural United States is largely one of distance, mass communication, variety of friendships, and multiplicity of special-interest groups. All over the nation, the country stores, the hamlets such as was Savannah, and the smaller villages have declined as farmers' service centers and as places for informal social meetings and gatherings. Farmers still engage in these activities, but more often than formerly they do so in the county-seat towns and larger villages. This was well exemplified in Grigsby's and Hoffsommer's study of Frederick County, Maryland.<sup>10</sup> In 1948, this county had fifty-four county-wide formal organizations. In speaking of the county in comparison with the locality groups and institutions, the authors

<sup>10</sup> S. Earl Grigsby and Harold Hoffsommer, *Rural Social Organization of Frederick County, Maryland*, Maryland AES Bull. A-51 (College Park, Md., Mar., 1949).



wrote, "No rural community within the county has equal or superior status to the over-all county-wide organizational structure known as the 'county.'"

#### CONCLUSIONS

Although rural America once may have had areas in which the relationships of the people were such that the term *neighborhood* might have been appropriate, the illustrations used above indicate that since 1920—about the time the sociologists began their studies identifying "neighborhoods" and "communities"—such integrated entities, if they were supposed to be similar to the foreign agricultural villages, have not existed in our country. Our rural sociologists have tried to map boundaries where few or none were common to the service areas of the various stores, the institutions, and the social groups meeting in the center. In fact they tried to define "neighborliness," a personal quality, by lines on maps and then to call the people of the delineated area a "we" group. *Neighborliness* was a cultural characteristic of rural America; it could not be mapped.

The families in the areas referred to above cooperated only on special occasions, did not attend the same churches, lived in a center and in isolated farm homes, and did not belong to the same social organizations; the children

did not necessarily attend the same school; and the families did not participate in the same rituals and ceremonies, but engaged in various activities according to their interests and friendships. Furthermore, few American hamlets or villages have such time-binding traditions as are common among the foreign villages.

Those who have sought to define and delimit areas, which they called *neighborhoods* and *communities*, possessed values and aims which should not be put aside, even though it seems apparent that the students of rural life never had—nor do they yet have—what they have thought they had. The aim of the "neighborhood" studies has been to find a way of conserving the values—call them ethics, feeling of duty, sense of obligation, regard for the personality of the other fellow, helpfulness, sympathy, neighborliness—that were indigenous to rural culture in the United States as well as in the villages of Korea, Japan, and Germany. Men such as Galpin, Sanderson, and Wilson had a feeling for and sought to conserve these values. It remains for the sociologists of today and tomorrow to find more adequate methods to realize similar aims. If special-interest, organizational, institutional, and friendship groups dominate today's life, these are the groups to be studied—studied, indeed, with a view to augmenting more than economic interests.

# NEIGHBORHOODS AS A FACTOR IN THE DIFFUSION OF FARM INFORMATION IN A NORTHEAST MISSOURI FARMING COMMUNITY\*

by Herbert F. Lionberger and Edward Hassinger†

## ABSTRACT

The tendency for neighborhood patterns of association to localize the exchange of farm information on a person-to-person basis is demonstrated in this paper by the analysis of two types of interpersonal relationships. Conditions which help to explain this relationship are examined and evaluated, and the relationship of neighborhood residence to the evaluation of sources of farm information is considered. Although consideration of the relative influence of neighborhood and clique patterns of association is beyond the scope of this study, the data show that clique members are more likely to live outside neighborhoods than inside.

## INTRODUCTION

This paper is concerned with the relationship of neighborhood residence to the diffusion of farm information, and with the social processes operating within neighborhoods that may help explain the relationship disclosed.<sup>1</sup> Although no attempt is made to assess the relative importance of neighborhoods and other informal groups with respect to the diffusion of farm information, some consideration is given to the relationship between clique and neighborhood membership.

Previous studies have shown that farm people rely heavily on intimate associates as sources of farm information and for advice in matters of doubt.<sup>2</sup> However, such findings gen-

erally have been interpreted without reference to the social context within which the exchange of information occurred. Although some attention has been given to certain aspects of the problem, the influence of specific structural elements still remains to be adequately demonstrated. Loomis has shown that social cliques play an important role in decisions relating to social action,<sup>3</sup> and one of the authors of this paper has dealt with the influence of social cliques on the diffusion of farm information.<sup>4</sup> Lazarsfeld has demonstrated the importance of intimate associates in relation to decisions regarding political matters, but without reference to specific informal social groups.<sup>5</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>The authors acknowledge their indebtedness to C. E. Lively for his advice and assistance in preparing the manuscript; and to C. M. Coughenour, who was responsible for and did most of the field work.

<sup>2</sup>See Charles R. Hoffer, *Social Organization in Relation to Extension Service in Eaton County, Michigan* (East Lansing: Michigan State College, Spec. Bull. 338, Aug., 1946); Eugene A. Wilkening, *Acceptance of Improved Farm Practices in Three Coastal Plain Counties* (Raleigh: North Carolina AES Tech. Bull. No. 98, May, 1952); Herbert F. Lionberger, *Sources and Use of Farm and Home Information in Mis-*

*souri* (Columbia: University of Missouri AES Research Bull. 472, Apr., 1951); USDA, *The Extension Service in Vermont, Part I—Farmers and the Extension Service* (Washington, D. C.: Extension Service, in cooperation with the Bureau of Agricultural Economics, July, 1947).

<sup>3</sup>C. P. Loomis, *Studies in Rural Social Organization* (East Lansing, Mich.: State College Book Store, 1945).

<sup>4</sup>Herbert F. Lionberger, "The Relation of Informal Social Groups to the Diffusion of Farm Information in a Northeast Missouri Farm Community," *Rural Sociology*, XIX: 3 (Sept., 1954), pp. 233-243.

<sup>5</sup>Paul F. Lazarsfeld, Bernard Berelson, and Hazel Gaudet, *The People's Choice: How the Voter Makes Up His Mind in a Presidential Campaign* (New York: Duell, Sloan and Pearce, 1944).

In sociological literature the neighborhood has long been an important concept, and neighborhoods have generally been regarded as having an important influence on social action and on interpersonal relationships through which farm information is passed from one person to another. Much research concerning neighborhood structure and trends has been done, but little attention has been directed to the function of neighborhoods in relation to social action and the diffusion of farm information.

#### METHOD AND SCOPE

This paper is part of a broader study of barriers to the diffusion of farm information. The locale for study was a trade-area community in northeast Missouri where grain and livestock farming predominated, and where socio-economic indices generally were above the state average. The data used in this study were obtained from interviews with 279 of an estimated 285 farm operators residing in the community during the fall and early winter of 1950.

Neighborhoods were delineated in the community by methods conventionally used by rural sociologists. In general, the method consisted of asking local residents to delineate neighborhoods with which they were acquainted, then comparing boundaries designated by the respondents. Independent observers who were requested to delineate neighborhoods were in very close agreement on the location of the boundaries. Although each neighborhood had a name by which it was commonly known, this was not considered a necessary condition for delineation. The five neighborhood areas thus delineated constituted all locality groups that could be identified by this method. They included 136 of the 279 farm operators studied. The largest one had 45 farm-operator families, and the smallest, 15; the average number

was 27. Each neighborhood had some service or institution that might be considered a center of neighborhood activity. Two had a store, a blacksmith shop, and a church; two had a general store; and one had a church and a school. Informal patterns of association centering about these service agencies lent further significance to these neighborhoods as sociological units. The purpose of this study, however, was to determine whether the areas operationally delineated had significance in the exchange of farm information on a person-to-person basis.

Four general types of data were available for testing the relationship of living in a neighborhood to the diffusion of farm information:

1. Personal sources of farm information.
2. Places where farm operators most frequently saw and talked to other farm operators.
3. Sources which farm operators considered most useful to them.
4. Clique membership of farm operators.

#### RESIDENCE OF PERSONS NAMED AS SOURCES OF FARM INFORMATION

The first question considered was whether neighborhood residence operated to localize information-seeking contacts more than residence in non-neighborhood areas. Farm operators were asked to specify whom they sought as personal sources of farm information, and to whom they talked most frequently about farm problems.<sup>6</sup> Since a very high proportion of the persons named as sources lived relatively close to one another,<sup>7</sup> distance

<sup>6</sup> Questions were structured to exclude such professional sources as county agents and vocational agriculture teachers.

<sup>7</sup> Eighty-nine per cent of the persons named as sources of farm information were found to live within 3 miles of the person naming them.

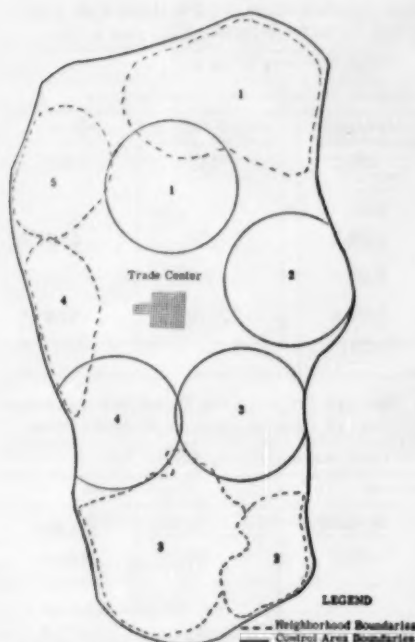


FIGURE 1. NEIGHBORHOODS AND CONTROL AREAS IN THE SURVEY COMMUNITY

alone would operate to localize personal contacts. It was necessary, therefore, to control the distance factor in order to assess the localizing influence of neighborhoods. To do this, control areas comparable in size to the average area of the five neighborhoods were outlined on the map.<sup>8</sup> These were drawn as circular areas and placed so as to have room for the maximum number of such mutually exclusive areas within the community, and so that there would be a minimum of overlap with neighborhood areas. As an additional consideration, the control areas were placed as far from the trade center as possible, in order to minimize any influence this central village might have. (See Figure 1.) Even with this precaution, it is noted as a limitation

on the interpretation of the data that neighborhoods tended to be nearer the periphery of the community area, and, therefore, somewhat farther from the village than the control areas. The number of families residing in the four areas thus located ranged from 18 to 22; the average was 21, the total 83.

The null hypothesis, that there is no difference between farm operators in neighborhoods and those in the control areas as to the proportion of the persons they name as information sources who live in their own neighborhood or control area, was tested. As Table 1 shows, 73 per cent of all persons named by neighborhood residents as sources of farm information lived within the same neighborhood as the person naming them, while only 52 per cent of the persons named by operators living in the control areas were within the same control areas. A chi-square test indicated that the difference was significant at the 0.1-per-cent level.<sup>9</sup> The null hypothesis was therefore rejected.

While there was a difference in the proportion of contacts made within the two types of area, it will be observed from Table 1 that even in the control areas more persons named as sources lived within the delineated areas than outside of them. This demonstrates that physical proximity was an important factor in the choice of personal sources of farm information in both types of area.

In the preceding analysis, all persons named as sources of farm information by operators were used. However, it was conjectured that for a more selective type of relationship neighborhood residence might be less important. Therefore, the analysis was repeated using only those farm operators mentioned as *most frequently*

<sup>8</sup> Both the size of the control areas and the average area of the neighborhoods were 12 square miles.

<sup>9</sup> The use of chi-square in this paper assumes that the contacts reported are representative of those occurring in a larger northeast Missouri area.

TABLE 1. PERSONS NAMED AS SOURCES OF FARM INFORMATION, BY RESIDENCE OF THE PERSON NAMED AND RESIDENCE OF THE FARMER NAMING HIM

Residence of person named	Farm operators living in:			
	Neighborhoods		Control areas	
	Number named	Per cent	Number named	Per cent
All persons named .....	209	100.0	146	100.0
Lives in same neighborhood or control area as farmer naming him .....	153	73.2	76	52.1
Does not live in same neighborhood or control area as farmer naming him .....	56	26.8	70	47.9

Chi-square = 16.9; D. F. = 1;  $P < .001$ .

TABLE 2. PERSONS NAMED AS MOST FREQUENTLY SOUGHT SOURCES OF FARM INFORMATION, BY RESIDENCE OF THE PERSON NAMED AND RESIDENCE OF THE FARMER NAMING HIM

Residence of person named	Farm operators living in:			
	Neighborhoods		Control areas	
	Number named	Per cent	Number named	Per cent
All persons named .....	65	100.0	59	100.0
Lives in same neighborhood or control area as farmer naming him .....	51	78.5	31	52.5
Does not live in same neighborhood or control area as farmer naming him .....	14	21.5	28	47.5

Chi-square = 9.2; D. F. = 1;  $P < .01$ .

sought sources of farm information. The results were almost identical with those obtained when all persons reported as sources were considered. (See Table 2.) Seventy-eight per cent of the persons most frequently sought as sources of farm information by farmers living in neighborhoods were in the same neighborhood as those naming them, while 52 per cent of those named by control-area residents lived in the same control area as those naming them. A chi-square test indicates that this difference is significant at the 1-per-cent level.

A further pertinent question was whether the differences in the ratios between all neighborhoods and all control areas also held true for individual neighborhoods and control areas. Sepa-

rate analysis for the individual neighborhoods and control areas showed that a lower proportion of persons named as sources were within each control area than within any neighborhood, with only one exception. It will be observed from Table 3 that the one exception was Control Area 2, in which the proportion was greater than for two of the neighborhoods. A plausible explanation of this exception probably is that a number of families that had some identity as a locality group made up part of Control Area 2, thus tending to localize information-seeking contacts more than otherwise would have been the case.

Since the neighborhoods varied in size, some question may be raised concerning the relation of size of area to



TABLE 3. THE PROPORTION OF PERSONS NAMED AS SOURCES OF FARM INFORMATION WHO LIVE IN THE SAME NEIGHBORHOOD OR CONTROL AREA AS THE FARMER NAMING THEM—FOR EACH NEIGHBORHOOD AND CONTROL AREA SEPARATELY

Neighborhood number	Persons named as sources		Control area number	Persons named as sources	
	Live in same neighborhood	Not in same neighborhood		Live in same control area	Not in same control area
	<i>Per cent</i>	<i>Per cent</i>		<i>Per cent</i>	<i>Per cent</i>
1.....	81.4	18.6	1.....	35.3	65.7
2.....	67.7	32.3	2.....	69.2	30.8
3.....	71.2	28.8	3.....	55.0	45.0
4.....	71.4	28.6	4.....	45.0	54.4
5.....	61.9	38.1			

TABLE 4. PLACES WHERE FARM OPERATORS SAY THEY MOST OFTEN TALK WITH OTHER FARM OPERATORS, BY RESIDENCE OF THOSE REPORTING

Place where talking most frequently occurs	Percentage of all farm operators in each residence group naming designated places*	
	Neighborhoods (N = 136)	Non-neighborhood areas (N = 143)
Neighborhood center .....	44.1	9.8
Community center (village) .....	11.0	32.2
Neighbors' homes, and along roads and fences.....	32.4	29.4
Farm meetings, "GI school," adult farm school, PMA.	12.5	26.6
Work-exchange groups .....	10.3	29.4
P.-T.A. meetings .....	7.4	0.0
Sunday school and church.....	4.4	4.2
Public sales .....	1.5	1.4

\*Percentages add up to more than 100, since some operators named more than one place.

the proportion of selections made within neighborhoods. However, when the neighborhoods were ranked in area from largest to smallest, the corresponding ranks in the proportion of persons named as sources of farm information within each of the neighborhoods were found to be 1, 3, 5, 2, 4. From this it can be seen that there is no very clear relationship between size and the proportion of persons named as sources who lived within the area.

#### PLACE OF ASSOCIATION

Up to this point the comparison has been between persons sought for farm

information by farm operators living in neighborhoods and those of control areas. For the remainder of the analysis, the comparison will be between farm operators residing within neighborhoods and those residing outside.

The localizing influence of neighborhoods upon the choice of personal sources of farm information having been demonstrated, it was then hypothesized that farmers living in neighborhoods differed from those living outside as to the places where information-seeking contacts occurred. The farm operators had been asked where they most frequently talked to

other farmers regarding farm problems. These responses disclosed that the village—the community center—was much more important for those living outside neighborhoods than for those living inside, as a place where farm information was exchanged. About a third of the operators residing outside the neighborhoods indicated that the village was the place where they most frequently talked about farming; only 11 per cent of those residing within neighborhoods gave this answer. (See Table 4.) The neighborhood centers, on the other hand, offered neighborhood residents a comparable place for informal contacts; the neighborhood center was mentioned by 44 per cent of the neighborhood residents. Visiting with neighbors and visiting along roads and fences were frequently mentioned by both neighborhood and non-neighborhood residents. A slightly higher proportion of the former than of the latter named such places. Farm operators residing outside neighborhoods named such institutionalized meeting places as farm organization meetings, "the GI school," the adult farm school, and the PMA office more often than those living in neighborhoods. P-T.A. meetings were not mentioned by anyone outside neighborhoods, but were mentioned by about 7 per cent of those within neighborhoods. Non-neighborhood residents showed a greater tendency to name work-exchange gatherings than did neighborhood residents. This finding was somewhat unexpected, but it is possible that in this area work-exchange may have taken on some rather rationalistic characteristics not ordinarily associated with neighborhood relationships.

Thus, in this community there were differences on a neighborhood basis, not only in the localization of information-seeking contacts but also in the places where farm operators most fre-

quently talked with one another about farm problems. The great reliance that neighborhood residents placed on neighborhood centers as places of contact and the importance attached to the village center and institutionalized meeting places by non-neighborhood residents may be a partial explanation for the high proportion of information-seeking contacts neighborhood residents made within neighborhoods. Neighborhood centers tended to localize contacts by turning them inward, while contacts made at the village center and institutionalized meeting places tended to be with farm operators drawn from a wider area.

#### SOURCES OF FARM INFORMATION CONSIDERED MOST IMPORTANT

The third type of data found useful to characterize the pattern of information-seeking within and without neighborhoods was the relative importance which farm operators placed upon various sources of farm information. Each farm operator was asked to indicate the sources of farm information he considered most useful to him. Sources named were grouped into three general categories: (1) intimate associates (friends, neighbors, and relatives); (2) mass communication media (newspapers, magazines, and radio); and (3) institutionalized sources (county agents, vocational agriculture teachers, farm organization meetings, farm bulletins, adult farm school, and a number of adult educational agencies). A fourth category—of questionable designation as a source of information—was "own experience."

Reliance on intimate associates to the relative exclusion of institutionalized sources and mass communication media may be taken as indicative of a localistic-traditional type of orientation with respect to obtaining farm information. The opposite may be taken as indicative of a broader, more rationalistic type of orientation with

TABLE 5. SOURCES OF FARM INFORMATION THAT FARM OPERATORS SAY ARE MOST VALUABLE, BY RESIDENCE OF THOSE REPORTING

Most valuable source	Percentage of all farm operators in each residence group naming designated source*	
	Neighborhoods (N = 136)	Non-neighborhood areas (N = 143)
Intimate associates .....	47.8	28.0
Mass communication media.....	25.0	42.0
Institutionalized sources .....	30.1	32.2
Own experience .....	2.9	5.6

Chi-square = 14.5; D. F. = 3;  $P < .01$ .

\*Percentages add up to more than 100, since some operators named more than one source.

respect to information-seeking. A much greater proportion of neighborhood residents (48 per cent) than of nonresidents (28 per cent) regarded intimate associates as their most valuable sources of information. (See Table 5.) Little difference was noted between the two groups in the proportion listing institutionalized sources. Non-neighborhood persons reported a slightly larger percentage of their most valued sources in this category. Seventeen per cent fewer neighborhood than non-neighborhood residents designated mass communication media as their most valuable source of information. No more than 6 per cent of either group gave "own experience" as their most valuable source. A chi-square test indicated that the differences between neighborhood and non-neighborhood residents were significant at the 1-per-cent level.

The way in which neighborhood and non-neighborhood residents differed regarding sources of information considered most important to them supports the idea that neighborhoods—relative to non-neighborhood areas—offer an encouraging situation for traditional, localistic types of interaction. However, the data also point up the fact that in both kinds of area great emphasis was placed upon institutionalized sources and mass media. Thus,

while neighborhoods may be a modifying influence on source preferences for obtaining farm information, the differences were in degree and not in kind.

#### RELATION BETWEEN NEIGHBORHOOD AND CLIQUE MEMBERSHIP

The emphasis placed upon neighborhood does not deny the importance of other face-to-face groups in the diffusion of information. It has been shown in another paper growing out of the same investigation that the diffusion of farm information is related to association in social cliques.<sup>10</sup> Since both cliques and neighborhoods are characterized by intimate association, they may have somewhat the same role in the process of diffusion. Although an investigation of the similarity of roles of these groups is beyond the scope of this study, it was possible to test one hypothesis pertinent to the diffusion of farm information—that clique membership is relatively greater among farmers living outside neighborhoods than among those living within. It was found that although the number of people living inside and outside of neighborhoods was about the same, 61 per cent of the clique members lived

<sup>10</sup> Lionberger, *op. cit.* Cliques were defined in this study as mutually interlocking friendship groups whose members associated as social equals.

outside of neighborhoods compared with 39 per cent living inside. These figures support the hypothesis.

#### SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The data for this study were obtained from 279 farm operators in a northeast Missouri community where farming conditions were generally above the state average. The conclusions may be regarded as valid for the community itself and probably for the five-county, culture-core area of which it is a part. Generalization beyond these limits is not warranted.

The null hypothesis, that there was no difference in the localizing influence of neighborhoods and control areas on information-seeking contacts, was rejected on the basis of large and significant differences in the degree to which persons seeking farm information confined their personal sources to their own neighborhoods as opposed to the degree to which those living in control areas confined their choices to their own control areas. Large differences were in evidence regardless of whether all persons named as sources were considered or whether the analysis was limited only to those named as most frequently sought.

The manner in which contacts were concentrated about focal points of association helps to explain the localizing influence of neighborhoods. Farm operators who resided in neighborhoods said they most frequently talked to other farm operators about farm problems at neighborhood centers, while those living outside neighborhoods said they most frequently talked to other farmers at the village center and at such places as the "GI farm school," the adult farm school, the

PMA office, and farm meetings. Visiting along roads and fences was regarded as an important means of exchanging farm information by both neighborhood and non-neighborhood residents, thus indicating that such contacts were not distinctive neighborhood phenomena.

Neighborhood residents were inclined to place a greater emphasis on friends and neighbors as sources of farm information than were those who lived outside neighborhoods. Neighborhood residents most frequently named friends and neighbors as their most important sources of farm information, while non-neighborhood residents most often named mass communication media. This reliance of neighborhood residents on intimate associates, to the relative exclusion of institutionalized sources and mass communication media, seems to indicate a localistic-traditional type of orientation with respect to the seeking of farm information.

Although the comparative importance of neighborhoods and cliques on the interpersonal exchange of farm information was not determined, there are some indications that the two serve much the same function. Farm operators living within neighborhoods were less likely to be clique members than those living without.

In general, the data revealed that neighborhoods in this northeast Missouri community cannot be considered insignificant factors in the diffusion of farm information. Not only did neighborhoods localize contacts and provide opportunity for them but they appeared to operate as a conditioning factor in the evaluation of sources of farm information.

## RESEARCH NOTES

### THE RELATION OF NEIGHBORHOOD OF RESIDENCE TO ADOPTION OF RECOMMENDED FARM PRACTICES\*

by C. Paul Marsh and A. Lee Coleman†

The purpose of this paper is to test the hypothesis that the extent to which farm operators adopt recommended farm practices is, in part, a function of the operator's neighborhood of residence. This hypothesis is based on the assumption that relationships among neighbors affect many of the individual operator's decisions concerning the farm business. This assumption is derived from what might be regarded as a basic postulate of sociology: *When a number of persons are in interaction over an extended period of time, mutual expectations and norms develop concerning the behavior of the persons involved, and the individual's actions are not independent of these norms and expectations.*

The data presented here were obtained in personal interviews with 393 farm operators in one Kentucky county, in 1950. All farm operators (except for a negligible number who were ill or otherwise unavailable) in thirteen neighborhoods<sup>1</sup> were interviewed. The neighborhoods were selected on a judgment basis to represent different areas and topography in the county. No respondent lived more than 25 miles from all other respondents, and there were no unique differences in the ethnic background of the residents of the different neighborhoods. All respondents were white, and almost all were born in Kentucky.

The county has a fairly prosperous burley tobacco-livestock agriculture. Somewhat more than half the county is a region of rather rough hill country, and the rest is moderately rolling; in the former area, the farms are mostly small and poor, and in the latter they are larger and more productive.

\*The investigation reported in this paper is in connection with a project of the Kentucky Agricultural Experiment Station and is published by permission of the director.

This is the third in a series of notes from the same project. See the June and September, 1954 (XIX:2 and 3), issues of *Rural Sociology*.

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<sup>1</sup>The neighborhoods were delineated several years before by extension personnel and rural sociologists. In the analysis of the data, it is assumed that these have some sociological meaning as area divisions; but no attempt was made to determine to what extent they are "true" neighborhoods in the usual sociological sense, nor does the analysis necessarily require that "true" neighborhoods be assumed.

At the time of the survey the extension program in the county was active and well established and was regarded as one of the better programs in the state. The county was an organized soil conservation district and the program had been in operation for several years. The Production and Marketing Administration was organized on the usual county and community basis. Presumably these agricultural services and information programs were designed to serve equally the residents of all neighborhoods within the county.

Information was obtained on the extent to which each of the operators had tried and was following 21 recommended farm practices. For each respondent an adoption score was calculated. This score is the percentage of applicable practices which the farmer had adopted.<sup>2</sup> For example, if 14 of the practices applied to the farm operations being carried on and the operator had adopted 7, his score was 50. Thus it was possible for the scores to range from 0 to 100. The actual range was from 6 to 89. This analysis is based on a comparison of these scores among the 13 neighborhoods and certain groupings of these neighborhoods.

TABLE 1. NUMBER OF RESPONDENTS AND MEAN PRACTICE-ADOPTION SCORE OF RESPONDENTS IN EACH NEIGHBORHOOD, WASHINGTON COUNTY, KENTUCKY, 1950

Neighborhood	Number of respondents	Mean adoption score
All.....	393	40
1.....	28	25
2.....	27	28
3.....	51	30
4.....	50	33
5.....	39	39
6.....	16	41
7.....	14	43
8.....	54	44
9.....	16	44
10.....	26	50
11.....	23	52
12.....	17	56
13.....	32	57

As may be seen in Table 1, there was a wide variation among neighborhoods in the mean scores of residents. These mean scores range from a low of 25 in one neighborhood to a high of 57 in another. (The

<sup>2</sup> Adoption was defined here as having tried the practice.



TABLE 2. DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY PRACTICE-ADOPTION SCORE AND TYPE OF NEIGHBORHOOD, WASHINGTON COUNTY, KENTUCKY, 1950

Practice-adoption score	"Low" neighborhood (N = 156)	"Medium" neighborhood (N = 139)	"High" neighborhood (N = 98)	All neighborhood (N = 393)
	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent
All.....	100	100	100	100
06-22.....	32	9	1	16
23-30.....	29	14	6	19
31-38.....	17	18	15	17
39-44.....	13	21	12	16
45-59.....	6	24	23	16
60-89.....	3	14	43	16

$\chi^2 = 145.21$ , degrees of freedom = 10;  $P < .001$ .

TABLE 3. DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY EDUCATION AND TYPE OF NEIGHBORHOOD, WASHINGTON COUNTY, KENTUCKY, 1950

Grades of schooling completed	"Low" neighborhood (N = 156)	"Medium" neighborhood (N = 138)	"High" neighborhood (N = 98)	All neighborhood (N = 392)
	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent
All.....	100	100	100	100
4 or less.....	30	11	18	20
5-6.....	25	18	6	18
7-8.....	38	45	27	38
9-11.....	4	12	15	10
12 or more.....	3	14	34	14

$\chi^2 = 85$ , degrees of freedom = 8;  $P < .001$ .

neighborhood with the highest mean score was within three miles of the neighborhood with the lowest mean score. The former neighborhood was in the moderately rolling section of the county, while the latter was in the hill section.) These data, then, support the hypothesis that adoption is related to neighborhood of residence.

Certain socio-economic characteristics, however, are associated both with adoption scores of operators and with neighborhood of residence. Neighborhoods that are low in adoption tend also to be low on socio-economic variables. The question arises as to whether the differences among neighborhoods on adoption may be attributed to differences on socio-economic variables.

Although the number of cases in each neighborhood was too small to permit further analysis by individual neighborhoods, the distribution of mean adoption scores suggested a grouping of neighborhoods. Among the four neighborhoods with the lowest adoption scores, the range in mean

scores is only 25 to 33; among the next five, the range is from 39 to 44; and in the top four, the range is from 50 to 57. The neighborhoods were combined on this basis into three types of neighborhoods: "low adoption areas," "medium adoption areas," and "high adoption areas"—with 156, 138, and 98 cases, respectively. The remaining analysis uses these groupings, on the assumption that the relationships among neighbors in the neighborhoods grouped together are similar insofar as they influence adoption. The percentage distribution of scores by "type of neighborhood" is presented in Table 2.<sup>3</sup>

As noted above, a number of socio-economic characteristics vary by neighborhood and by adoption score. For example, only 7 per cent of the residents of the "low adop-

<sup>3</sup> Though the sample was not selected by probability techniques, tests of significance (chi-square) were computed for the distributions presented in tables unless otherwise noted. Significance is as indicated on the tables.

TABLE 4. DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY PRACTICE-ADOPTION SCORE AND EDUCATION, WASHINGTON COUNTY, KENTUCKY, 1950

Practice-adoption score	Grades of schooling completed				
	4 or less (N = 79)	5-6 (N = 79)	7-8 (N = 147)	9-11 (N = 30)	12 or more (N = 57)
	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent
All.....	100	100	100	100	100
06-30.....	56	54	31	8	5
31-44.....	38	34	37	20	23
45-89.....	6	12	32	72	72

$\chi^2 = 117.31$ , degrees of freedom = 8;  $P < .001$ .

TABLE 5. DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY PRACTICE-ADOPTION SCORE, TYPE OF NEIGHBORHOOD, AND WHETHER THEY HAD TALKED WITH A PROFESSIONAL AGRICULTURAL ADVISOR\* IN THE PAST TWO YEARS, WASHINGTON COUNTY, KENTUCKY, 1950

Practice-adoption score	Had talked with an advisor			Had not talked with an advisor		
	"Low" neighborhoods (N = 53)	"Medium" neighborhoods (N = 89)	"High" neighborhoods (N = 80)	"Low" neighborhoods (N = 103)	"Medium" neighborhoods (N = 49)	"High" neighborhoods (N = 18)**
	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent
All.....	100	100	100	100	100	.....
06-30.....	45	12	4	69	41	.....
31-44.....	40	36	21	26	47	.....
45-89.....	15	52	75	5	12	.....

$\chi^2 = 60.50$ , degrees of freedom = 4;  
 $P < .001$ .

$\chi^2 = 9.493$ , degrees of freedom = 2;  
 $P < .01$ .

\*County agent, Soil Conservation Service technician, Production Credit Association representative, or Farmers Home Administration representative.

\*\*Percentages were not computed if  $N < 30$ .

tion areas" had more than an eighth-grade education as compared with 49 per cent of the residents of the high areas (Table 3). Also, 41 per cent of those who had more than an eighth-grade education had scores of 60 or more as compared with 9 per cent of those with only eight grades or less of schooling. Similarly, the following factors were related both to adoption scores and neighborhood: Score on the Sewell Scale of Socio-Economic Status (Short Form),<sup>4</sup> value of crops and products sold, membership in the Farm Bureau, and personal contact with professional agricultural advisors<sup>5</sup> in the two years preceding the interview.

Cross-tabulation of scores by type of neighborhood with each of these factors held constant (successively, not simultane-

ously) indicates that the differences among neighborhoods still exist (Tables 4-9). For example, in "low adoption areas" only 5 per cent of the operators with eight grades or less of schooling had scores of 45 or more as compared with 27 per cent of those who lived in "medium adoption areas" and almost half of those in "high adoption areas." Similarly, only 13 per cent of the Farm Bureau members in "low adoption areas" had scores of 45 or more, while 48 per cent of the members in "medium areas" and 72 per cent of those in "high areas" had such scores.

The data thus lend further support to the hypothesis that the extent to which farmers adopt recommended farm practices is, in part, a function of the operator's neighborhood of residence.

Presumably, the relationships among the neighbors may operate in a number of ways to influence the individual operator's decisions concerning farming matters. On the

<sup>4</sup> William H. Sewell, "A Short Form of the Farm Family Socio-Economic Status Scale," *Rural Sociology*, VIII:2 (June, 1943), pp. 161-170.

<sup>5</sup> County agent, Soil Conservation Service technician, Farmers Home Administration representative, or Production Credit Association representative.

TABLE 6. DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY PRACTICE-ADOPTION SCORE, EDUCATION, AND TYPE OF NEIGHBORHOOD, WASHINGTON COUNTY, KENTUCKY, 1950

Practice-adoption score	8 grades or less of schooling			More than 8 grades of schooling		
	"Low" neighborhoods (N = 144)	"Medium" neighborhoods (N = 102)	"High" neighborhoods (N = 50)	"Low" neighborhoods (N = 12)*	"Medium" neighborhoods (N = 36)	"High" neighborhoods (N = 48)
	<i>Per cent</i>	<i>Per cent</i>	<i>Per cent</i>	<i>Per cent</i>	<i>Per cent</i>	<i>Per cent</i>
All.....	100	100	100	.....	100	100
06-30.....	65	28	12	.....	8	2
31-44.....	30	45	40	.....	22	15
45-89.....	5	27	48	.....	70	83

$\chi^2 = 71.59$ , degrees of freedom = 4;  
 $P < .001$ .

$\chi^2$  not computed, since the expected frequencies in 2 cells are less than 5.

\*Percentages were not computed if  $N < 30$ .

TABLE 7. DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY PRACTICE-ADOPTION SCORE, FARM BUREAU MEMBERSHIP, AND TYPE OF NEIGHBORHOOD, WASHINGTON COUNTY, KENTUCKY, 1950

Practice-adoption score	Nonmembers of Farm Bureau			Members of Farm Bureau		
	"Low" neighborhoods (N = 100)	"Medium" neighborhoods (N = 54)	"High" neighborhoods (N = 18)*	"Low" neighborhoods (N = 36)	"Medium" neighborhoods (N = 85)	"High" neighborhoods (N = 80)
	<i>Per cent</i>	<i>Per cent</i>	<i>Per cent</i>	<i>Per cent</i>	<i>Per cent</i>	<i>Per cent</i>
All.....	100	100	.....	100	100	100
06-30.....	69	45	.....	46	8	4
31-44.....	25	33	.....	41	44	24
45-89.....	6	22	.....	13	48	72

$\chi^2 = 12.20$ , degrees of freedom = 2;  
 $P < .01$ .

$\chi^2 = 71.22$ , degrees of freedom = 4;  
 $P < .001$ .

\*Percentages were not computed if  $N < 30$ .

one hand, the influence may be the result of explicitly recognized pressure from neighbors.<sup>6</sup> If the influence is recognized, the individual operator presumably can decide consciously whether a proposed deviation from group norms and expectations will result in other gains "worth" enough to "pay for" the ridicule or other penalties from neighbors. It is usually assumed, however, that this interpersonal influence is more often a subtle, unrecognized influence, in that: (1) the operator adopts many of the attitudes and expectations of his neighbors and evaluates a given farm

practice within this attitudinal-expectation framework, and (2) the operator's perception of the attitudes and expectations of neighbors unconsciously (or, at least, implicitly) affects his evaluation of the consequences of following a given practice.<sup>7</sup>

The usual hypothesis is that group norms and expectations retard change—for ex-

<sup>7</sup> This discussion can be extended to other groups (such as kin or friendship groups). The influence of mutual expectations and norms within work groups on the productivity of the individual worker in industry has been the subject of much study and discussion in recent years. The classic study is reported in F. J. Roethlisberger and William J. Dickson, *Management and the Worker* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1940).

Though the work situation of farmers is obviously very different from that of workers in industry, research workers in the area of practice-adoption and decision-making among farmers might find some of the studies in industrial sociology very suggestive.

<sup>6</sup> See, for example, Eugene A. Wilkening, "A Sociopsychological Approach to the Study of Acceptance of Innovations in Farming," *Rural Sociology*, XV:4 (Dec., 1950), pp. 352-364. For an illustration of the recognition of this pressure by a writer in a popular farm magazine, see: Fred Hawthorn, "I Lister Plant in Legume Sod," *Country Gentlemen*, Vol. 124, No. 4 (Apr., 1954).

TABLE 8. DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY PRACTICE-ADOPTION SCORE, SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS SCORE,\* AND TYPE OF NEIGHBORHOOD, WASHINGTON COUNTY, KENTUCKY, 1950

Practice-adoption score	Socio-economic score of 73 or less			Socio-economic score of 74 or more		
	"Low" neighborhoods (N = 125)	"Medium" neighborhoods (N = 58)	"High" neighborhoods (N = 19)**	"Low" neighborhoods (N = 30)	"Medium" neighborhoods (N = 81)	"High" neighborhoods (N = 70)
	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent
All.....	100	100	.....	100	100	100
06-30 .....	68	36	.....	30	12	4
31-44 .....	28	48	.....	43	33	21
45-89 .....	4	16	.....	27	55	75

$\chi^2 = 14.73$ , degrees of freedom = 2;

$P < .001$ .

$\chi^2 = 24.35$ , degrees of freedom = 4;

$P < .001$ .

\*Score on Sewell Scale of Socio-Economic Status (Short Form).

\*\*Percentages were not computed if  $N < 30$ .

TABLE 9. DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY PRACTICE-ADOPTION SCORE, VALUE OF PRODUCTS SOLD, AND TYPE OF NEIGHBORHOOD, WASHINGTON COUNTY, KENTUCKY, 1950

Practice-adoption score	Value of products sold under \$2,500			Value of products sold \$2,500 and over		
	"Low" neighborhoods (N = 140)	"Medium" neighborhoods (N = 73)	"High" neighborhoods (N = 29)*	"Low" neighborhoods (N = 15)*	"Medium" neighborhoods (N = 61)	"High" neighborhoods (N = 60)
	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent
All.....	100	100	.....	.....	100	100
06-30 .....	61	32	.....	.....	10	1
31-44 .....	31	48	.....	.....	31	19
45-89 .....	8	20	.....	.....	59	80

$\chi^2 = 17.92$ , degrees of freedom = 2;

$P < .001$ .

$\chi^2$  not computed, since the expected frequency in 2 cells is less than 5.

\*Percentages were not computed if  $N < 30$ .

ample: "The greater the extent to which farm matters are group-sanctioned (by kin or locality), the slower the acceptance of farm practices, since new practices involve a change in group as well as individual evaluation."<sup>9</sup>

While this may well be true if group sanctions apply to specific traditional practices, there also may be situations in which group sanctions of "farm matters" accentuate change. Today there are some farmer groups within which there is great emphasis upon the societal values of "efficiency and practicality" and "science and secular

rationality."<sup>9</sup> If the agricultural agencies came to symbolize "scientific agriculture" and "efficient agriculture" to such groups, group influences would presumably accelerate adoption of practices recommended by these agencies.

These are research questions similar to those raised by others,<sup>10</sup> and they are not answered here. Such questions suggest that further research in this area might consider not only the attitudes, values, and expectations of the individual operator concerning farming matters, but also his perceptions of the attitudes, values, and expectations of his neighbors.

<sup>9</sup> *Sociological Research on the Diffusion and Adoption of New Farm Practices*, report of the Subcommittee on the Diffusion and Adoption of Farm Practices, The Rural Sociological Society, published by the Kentucky Agricultural Experiment Station, Department of Rural Sociology, RS-2 (Lexington, Ky., June, 1952), p. 5.

<sup>10</sup> For a discussion of these values in American society, see Robin M. Williams, Jr., *American Society* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1951), pp. 372-442.

<sup>11</sup> See Wilkening, *op. cit.*; and Sels C. Mayo and William E. Barnett, "Neighbor Groups—An Informal System of Communication," *Rural Sociology*, XVII:4 (Dec., 1952), pp. 371 f.

# DIFFERENTIAL PREVALENCE OF MENTAL DEFICIENCY IN THE URBAN AND RURAL POPULATIONS OF OHIO

by Robert M. Frumkin<sup>†</sup>

City dwellers often say that rural people are not so bright as people in cities. It is likely that what urban people mean by such statements is not that rural individuals are less intelligent but that they are not so sophisticated as city people. Perhaps, however, some light on such a question can be shed by studying the environmental backgrounds of first admissions to Ohio State Schools, Ohio's institutions for the mentally deficient. Thus, let us suppose that city folk literally mean that mental deficiency is more common in rural areas. This hypothesis can be tested by a study of admissions to Ohio State Schools.

All first admissions (386) to Ohio State Schools for the year ending December 31, 1949, were tabulated by clinical diagnosis and urban-rural background. Indices of differential prevalence were computed by relating these data to the 1950 census data for Ohio. The index of differential prevalence is the ratio (times 100) of the percentage which each population group (rural and urban) accounted for in the admissions to the percentage which each group made up in the total population of the state. Thus an index of 100 would indicate that, for a given type of deficiency, there was no difference between the actual and expected rates—that rural and urban persons were admitted in the same proportions that they make up in the total population. An index higher than 100 indicates that, for the given type of deficiency, the population group is overrepresented in the admissions; an index less than 100 indicates underrepresentation of the population group. The indices for each group are given in Table 1.

The table indicates that proportionately about three times as many persons are admitted from urban areas as from rural areas in Ohio. However, this apparently greater prevalence of mental deficiency in urban areas is not necessarily a true indication of real differences in intellectual capacity. It might mean only that the rural community is better able to raise and to educate a mentally deficient child without

the aid of a state-supported institution. A mentally deficient individual with a mental age of 7 years or more (i.e., of moron mental status or higher) often can be a distinct help on the farm under proper supervision.<sup>1</sup> If the difference in the actual incidence of mental deficiency in the two populations could be ascertained, it might be found to be negligible. But, at this stage of our knowledge, rural people might well say to city people that, on the basis of objective statistics, it can be held tenta-

TABLE 1. INDICES OF DIFFERENTIAL PREVALENCE OF MENTAL DEFICIENCY IN THE URBAN AND RURAL POPULATIONS OF OHIO, BY CLINICAL DIAGNOSIS, BASED ON NEW ADMISSIONS TO STATE INSTITUTIONS DURING 1949

Clinical diagnosis	Place of residence	
	Urban	Rural
All cases .....	126	39
Familial .....	127	36
Mongolism .....	137	13
With congenital cerebral spastic infantile paralysis .....	134	20
Post-infectious .....	134	21
Post-traumatic .....	107	84
With epilepsy .....	102	96
With endocrine disorder .....	107	84
Undifferentiated type ..	124	43
Other .....	121	51

tively that there are more mentally deficient urban individuals than rural—at least in institutions for the mentally deficient.

Since mental deficiency is largely physiogenic in origin, it has not been practical, as is the case in studying the etiology of mental illness, to study it in sociological and psychological terms<sup>2</sup>—although such attempts have been made.<sup>3</sup>

<sup>1</sup> See A. P. Bronner, "Follow-up Studies of Mental Defectives," *Proceedings of the American Association of Mental Deficiency*, 57 (1933), pp. 258-267. See also, E. A. Doll, "Parole of the Feeble-minded," *The Training School Bulletin* (Vineland, N. J.), 28 (1931), pp. 1-10.

<sup>2</sup> R. M. Frumkin, "Comparative Rates of Mental Illnesses for Urban and Rural Populations in Ohio," *Rural Sociology*, XIX:1 (Mar., 1954), pp. 70-72.

<sup>3</sup> R. M. Frumkin, "General Characteristics of Residents in State Schools," *Public Welfare Statistics* (Ohio), 8 (Sept., 1953), pp. 516-518 and 557-573.

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## APPLIED SOCIOLOGY NOTES

### A COOPERATIVE EXPERIMENT IN TEACHING METHODS OF COMMUNITY RESEARCH TO STUDENT TEACHERS MAJORING IN AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION

by Selz C. Mayo and C. C. Scarborough†

#### INTRODUCTION

During the fall term of 1953-54, the Departments of Agricultural Education and Rural Sociology at North Carolina State College began a cooperative program of working with student teachers in the field. This work, now under way for two quarters, will become a regular part of the teaching program of both departments.<sup>1</sup> The experience gained may be of value to people in other institutions.

The purposes of this article are to describe, to evaluate briefly, to indicate problems encountered and the way they were handled, and to point up plans for future developments in this cooperative program. The descriptions and evaluation deal, in the main, with the second term (winter of 1954), when many of the errors made during the fall of 1953 were worked out.

#### FIRST TERM—FALL 1953

Thirty-five seniors majoring in agricultural education registered for a course in the Rural Sociology Department entitled, "Introduction to Social Research" (with special reference to community research).<sup>2</sup> The major requirements of the course were to be fulfilled while these seniors were doing their supervised student teaching at local school centers.

At the beginning of the term, while still on the college campus,<sup>3</sup> the students attended a two-day planning conference where five to seven hours of lecture-discussion were devoted to the community research course. The work for the term was divided into two major phases. For the first half of the term, the two or more students at each center were to prepare a joint report giving a general description of the community in which they were working.

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<sup>1</sup> This is only one part of the cooperative teaching of the two departments.

<sup>2</sup> Previously these students had taken an introductory course in rural sociology.

<sup>3</sup> No additional funds were available; the program had to be developed out of the resources already allocated to the two departments.

R. W. Poston's *Democracy Is You*<sup>4</sup> had been selected as a text, and the students were asked to include in their study some phase of the work as outlined in the text for each of the committees numbered five through seventeen. (Other reference materials were of course included in the outline.) This assignment was not satisfactory for many students; apparently the sheer volume of the ideas included in the outlines overwhelmed the students. They were not able to make adequate discriminatory choices, and they were not sufficiently familiar with ways of putting the materials together in a meaningful way.

At mid-term, after a period of five weeks in the field, the students returned to the campus for another two-day conference. A lecture-discussion period was devoted to the research course and another shorter period was devoted to a fuller explanation of the work for the second half of the term. This mid-term conference, according to the students, cleared up a great deal of confusion. As one student expressed it, "The light began to dawn at the mid-term conference."

The conference over, student teachers returned to their centers. Each team selected a research topic and prepared a joint written report which was submitted to the instructor at the end of the term. These reports showed definite improvement.

A final two-day conference was held on the campus at the end of the term. Additional lecture-discussion time was devoted to the research work. Both general and specific questions were answered and discussed during this period.

#### SECOND TERM—WINTER 1954

During the second term, from January to March, 1954, major changes were made in the course. These revisions were designed to overcome the weaknesses revealed in the first term and to strengthen the total process of arriving at objectives and goals. With these changes, the course was made more satisfying and rewarding for both the students and the two departments concerned.

**Conference at Beginning of Term.** A two-day conference began the term's work, and a short orientation period opened the first day's session. Time was devoted to a discussion of "How introduction to social re-

<sup>4</sup> New York: Harper & Bros., 1953.

search fits into student teaching," as a joint undertaking of the two departments. (The persons involved were the authors of this paper.)

This discussion was followed by a short general session concerned with "Planning for learning experiences in our student teaching." Seven topics were outlined and discussed. The seven areas listed, in order, were the following:

1. Adult education.
2. Developing a supervised farming program and making on-farm visits more effective.
3. Developing and using teaching materials.
4. Studying the community.
5. Making effective use of school time.
6. Personal relationships.
7. Future Farmers of America.

The following paragraph appeared on the program beneath the list of topics:

These seven areas are regarded as important areas in which to gain experiences while student teaching. Each student should select one area for study. The four or five who choose each topic will spend the afternoon as a research committee planning experiences we would like to secure in that area. A staff member will be available as a consultant (full-time) to each group for the entire afternoon. Wednesday morning (9-12) each committee will lead a discussion on its topic.

The list of topics and the paragraph of explanation represented major strategic decisions. Students could see and feel that their research and community analysis were integral parts of the program of gaining experiences while doing student teaching. Equally important was the recognition on the part of the students that "Social Research" was an integral part of the thinking of the staff members of their own Department of Agricultural Education. When the course was presented in this light, most of the students accepted its interrelatedness with their other work; and facts later bore out the early opinion that they had accepted this phase of the program. Such a degree of acceptance was never obtained during the first term.

The remainder of the morning was devoted to lecture-discussion for "Introduction to Social Research." The lecture materials were presented by the sociologist, and the discussion was handled jointly by representatives of the two departments. This procedure of joint responsibility was of significance to the students as they became more aware that this was a coopera-

tive program designed specifically for their own training and experience.

The afternoon session was devoted to group meetings on selected topics. Each student, during the morning, had selected one of the seven areas for detailed study. Four students chose the Community Study Committee, and the sociologist served as staff consultant for this group. One student was elected to serve as chairman, recorder, and spokesman for the committee.

*Democracy Is You*<sup>5</sup> was again selected as the text (additional references were listed on the outline). Within the very broad framework, the students were given a great deal of latitude to make recommendations. The committee planned only for the first half of the term—approximately five weeks. The following statement was prepared by the committee:

Your committee on "Studying the Community" outlined the work for the first half of the term and recommends that four areas of experience be stressed in the understanding of the community in which you are working.

1. *Map the Community.* See text, pp. 47-56 and pp. 197-199.

- (a) Outline entire school-community area.
- (b) Outline the various rural neighborhoods for each community.
- (c) Prepare a brief written statement for each neighborhood, pointing out major characteristics as well as major differences and similarities with other neighborhoods.
- (d) Give thought to the use of this map in showing the distribution of the various groups with which you are working.

2. *Population of the Community.* See text, pp. 56-63 and pp. 199-217.

- (a) Obtain actual count or estimate of the population of this community.
- (b) Obtain estimates on the composition of the population according to (1) farm and non-farm, (2) white and nonwhite, (3) tenants and owners in the farm population.
- (c) Indicate any recognized major disparity in the age and sex composition of the population.

3. *Economic Development of the Community* with special reference to Agriculture. See text, pp. 19-119 and pp. 240-260.

<sup>5</sup> Ibid.

- (a) Climate and soils of the community.
  - (b) Obtain access to most reliable data as to (1) number, and (2) distribution of farms by size and type.
  - (c) Major economic enterprises.
  - (d) Development of the use of farm machinery.
  - (e) Markets and marketing facilities.
  - (f) Living conditions in houses.
  - (g) A series of 10-20 case studies of representative adult farmers of the community. Obtain as a minimum the following data: Size of farm, owner or non-owner, major economic enterprises, plans for major changes, and major problems as recognized by the farmer. Each case is to be summarized in written form and a brief summary prepared for all cases.
4. *Educational Development in the Community.* See text, pp. 125-136 and pp. 264-277.
- (a) The committee strongly recommends that some estimate of the educational status of the community be obtained.
  - (b) Attitudes and opinions of people toward educational services in the community.
  - (c) Use of educational facilities for community purposes.
  - (d) Attitudes of other teachers toward vocational agriculture.
  - (e) Some (your) evaluation of community educational facilities and services.
5. *Summary and Conclusions of Community Study.* See text, especially pp. 168-177.

A word of explanation is necessary concerning the case studies (Item 3g above). A shift of emphasis to the adult education phase of the teaching program was being made by the Department of Agricultural Education. This was aimed at getting the students out of the classroom and into the community as quickly as possible after they had arrived at their teaching center. The case studies were considered important in themselves, but were also used as an instrument in the reorientation of this phase of the program.

Reports from the committees were presented at the second day of the conference. The Community Study Committee report was read by a student and discussed by the

entire group. Staff members were available for interpretation of the student committee report. Discussion of the more formal aspects of community research consumed one and one-half hours of the afternoon session. At the close of this session the student teachers left the campus for their teaching centers. The various committee reports were mimeographed and mailed to the students within a few days.

Thirty-one student teachers were placed in fifteen teaching centers. Staff members from the Department of Agricultural Education served as supervisors and visited the students about once every week or ten days. They assisted the students with research and the other phases of student teaching. During the third and fourth weeks, the sociologist visited the students and remained with them as long as the students appeared to need his assistance. This visit was crucial and appears to have been of considerable importance in the total teaching-learning process. The sociologist accompanied the staff supervisors during several of the early visits, and this appeared to be of importance in the process of acceptance by the student teachers and the supervising teachers.

**Conference at Mid-term.** Student teachers returned to the college campus at mid-term for a three-day evaluation and planning conference. According to the official program, the purposes of the conference were "... to evaluate progress and to plan for effective use of the remainder of the student teaching term. Each committee should aid the group in evaluating and planning in the area of its topic."

Committee meetings were held for three hours of the morning session the first day. The continuity of the total program was maintained by having each committee constituted just as at the beginning of the term. The Community Study Committee prepared the following evaluation which was later presented to the entire group for consideration:

#### Studying the Community

- I. The committee has concluded that a systematic study of the various phases of the community is essential for the student teacher. The members of the committee found knowledge of the community obtained early beneficial to their activities. A systematic visiting program (individual case study) of adult farmers as early in the term as possible is strongly recommended.

## II. Evaluation of major areas of surveying community.

A. *Mapping Community.* The committee has concluded that mapping the community is very beneficial and practically essential for a student teacher.

B. *Population of the Community.* The committee has concluded that this area of study is valuable to the student teacher. We approve the outline of a study that has been used, except we think more emphasis should be put on the breakdown of the actual farm population rather than the total population. The committee feels that there should be more orientation before student teachers go out.

C. *Economic Development of the Community.* The committee feels that this area of study is valuable to the student teacher. We approve the present outline of study except for one addition. We believe that recent changes and possible future changes should be added to section 3 (c) — Major economic enterprises.

D. *Educational Development in the Community.* The committee feels that this area of study is important, and we approve the present outline. We do feel that more explanation orientation should be given to the student teachers before they go out, along the lines of source material and means of obtaining the data required in this study.

The Community Study Committee then turned its attention to planning the work for the second half of the term. It was anticipated that a great many questions would arise in the minds of the students during the first half of the term. From these questions a specific problem for research was to be selected by each student. Many of the students had not made a final choice of a research project by mid-term. Individual conferences were held by the sociologist in an effort to help the student determine and think through his area of interest.

After considerable study, discussion, and consultation, the Community Study Committee recommended the following with respect to choosing a research project or problem:

1. Should be realistic.
2. Should be interesting to the student teacher.

3. The study should be of value to the community.

4. The problem should be one that the agricultural teacher and student teacher both see a need for solving.

5. The problem should have universal application to other communities as well as to the local community insofar as possible.

6. Choose a problem that can be solved in the time available and one for which data can be secured without too much difficulty.

Two other sections were included in the final planning report. One was on planning and carrying out a research project, and the other concerned a suggested outline for the final research report. Since the materials and suggestions included in these two sections are standard procedures found in most elementary texts on research methods, they are not included here.

After all the committees had given their reports, the student teachers were ready to return to their teaching centers. Thereafter the students were visited every week or ten days by staff supervisors from the Agricultural Education Department, who were available to assist students with their research problems just as with other phases of their program. During the third and fourth weeks the sociologist again visited the students in the fifteen teaching centers. Assistance was given as long as a student felt he needed such help. This visit was evaluated as very crucial, by all concerned. Questions were answered and specific problems were worked out in conference. Most of all, however, this visit served to encourage and stimulate the students. Every effort was made to have the school supervising teacher present at this conference; and this was true also for the visit by the sociologist before mid-term. This is very important, as the permanent teacher must become identified with the total program. In many (but not in all) schools the teacher did accept this responsibility, and he learned in the process.

**Conference at End of Term.** Student teachers returned to the college campus for a two-day conference prior to final examinations. During the morning of the first day, a period of one hour was set aside for a discussion of problems relating to their research work. This period was devoted in the main to specific problems, so that the students might complete their final written reports by the end of the second day of the conference.

The committees, as originally constituted, met for a period of two hours in the early afternoon, to prepare a final evaluation and summary of the work in the specific areas. These reports were presented during the last session of the first day of conference. The major point stressed by the Community Study Committee was the need for more adequate orientation both at the beginning of the term and at mid-term, in preparation for the individual research project. This committee did stress the desirability of continuing this phase of their total program. Also, they reiterated the evaluation summary of the first half of the term. All students were asked to prepare a short statement of evaluation of this work. Its contribution to their own development was stressed by thirty of the thirty-one students.

The morning session and a large part of the afternoon session of the second day were devoted to a summary by each student of his own research project. The students were asked to include the following in their summaries:

1. A statement of the problem.
2. Specific questions to be answered.
3. Methods and procedures used in conducting the study.
4. Summary of findings or results.
5. Conclusions and interpretations.

Many students stated that this session was the highlight of the final conference. It was made a fundamental and functional part of their learning process for the entire term.



## BOOK REVIEWS

Edited by Eugene A. Wilkening

*Colonial Development and Population in Taiwan.* By George W. Barclay. Princeton, N. J.: Princeton University Press, 1954. Pp. xviii + 274. \$5.00.

*A Report on Taiwan's Population* (To the Joint Commission on Rural Reconstruction). By George W. Barclay. Princeton, N. J.: Office of Population Research, Princeton University, 1954. Pp. xii + 120. \$2.50.

As their titles suggest, these are two complementary studies undertaken by the same author. Their theme is the demographic situation of Taiwan (or Formosa, as the island is more popularly known). *Colonial Development and Population in Taiwan* covers the prewar period when Taiwan, subjected to fifty years of colonial administration under the Japanese (1895-1945), doubled its population. The second study, *A Report on Taiwan's Population*, shows that the pattern of population increase has remained essentially the same in the island in the postwar years. Such phenomenal growth in population, the author points out with some concern, cannot persist without adversely affecting the levels of living of the Taiwanese within the next few decades.

This remarkable growth of the Taiwanese population has been due to two major factors: (a) the decline of mortality rates, and (b) the stationary condition of high fertility rates. This demographic pattern is not peculiar to Taiwan alone, because other countries, under the impact of modern science and technology on essentially rural societies, have had similar experience or are undergoing it at the present time (e.g., see *The Population of India and Pakistan*, by Kingsley Davis).

Even before the Japanese conquest of the island, the Taiwanese who originally came from the Chinese mainland, mostly from Kwantung and Fukien Provinces, had displaced the small number of aborigines not only in demographic importance but also with respect to economic and social considerations; and the author has appropriately limited his major findings to this group. From the very beginning of their rule, the Japanese colonizers concentrated on maintaining an efficient administration by providing a well-organized bureaucratic structure (manned by Japanese) in the capital city of Taipei and the regional capitals, while shrewdly retaining—and

getting things done the way they wanted through—the customary *pao-chia* (the native Chinese local government system in the rural areas). Under such a system, the demographic statistics were kept at a high level of reliability.

A significant reflection of the efficient colonial administration is the fact that within a very short space of time, the Japanese managed, sometimes by rather strict enforcement, to wipe out epidemic diseases and improve the environmental sanitation of the rural communities, thus reducing the risks of death. Thus, the crude death rates declined from 33.4 per thousand of the population at the turn of the century to 18.5 by 1941-43. Since the war, it has been claimed that a further reduction of the death rates from 18.1 in 1947 to 9.9 in 1952 has been achieved. Obviously, the latter figure is somewhat incongruous for Taiwan at this time, because (a) the death rate does not appear to have reached a saturation point in the island, and (b) rates as low as this are associated with such almost stationary populations as are found in New Zealand and some of the Nordic countries, where the expectancy of life is considerably higher than in Taiwan. For reasons explained in the second study, the author concludes that there has been underregistration of deaths in postwar Taiwan.

On the other hand, the tradition of having large families, which is basic in the organization of Chinese and Taiwanese societies, is undoubtedly responsible for the maintenance of high crude birth rates. Except for the immediate postwar years, when underregistration of births and deaths could be expected, the birth rate has never fallen below 40 per thousand; it was 46 in the quinquennium 1931-35, and has risen even to 50 in 1951. Thus, the central problem is posed as to how the accelerating rate of population growth can be held down without relying on "positive checks" (to use a Malthusian phrase) such as war, disease, and famine to do this job. The only answer is, of course, the control of fertility, as has been the case with the industrialized countries of the West. There is, however, the obvious difficulty of breaking through age-old customs and traditions in order to achieve this. Perhaps it is at this point that a rural sociologist could be most useful in instituting practical measures for the reduction of birth rates.

The experiments undertaken by the Indian government, with the assistance of the United Nations in the early phases, of introducing acceptable birth-control techniques such as the "rhythm method" should be watched with great interest by demographer and rural sociologist alike. It may be necessary also to explore the possibilities of employing "social case-work" methods in conjunction with an extension service for fertility control. The demographer, therefore, will need to join with other professional persons in order to arrive at some concrete proposals in this respect.

The two studies are very thoroughly done, and the author has used every kind of scientific device to prove his points. There is an enormous amount of information in these studies, all of which could not be mentioned in a short review; it should undoubtedly prove interesting as well as invaluable to persons who are connected with programs of technical assistance (such as the American Point-IV program), demographers, rural sociologists, and other social scientists.

RICHARD PAW U.

Glen Oaks, New York.

*Man's Capacity to Reproduce: The Demography of a Unique Population.* By Joseph W. Eaton and Albert J. Mayer. Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1954. Pp. 59. \$2.00.

Human reproductive behavior is not purely instinctive but is the result of a socio-biological process. Some of man's most strongly held cultural values and taboos affect his fertility. Although Pearl and others have presented case histories of extremes in individual fertility, and the mathematically inclined have computed on the basis of rates of human ovulation the theoretical level of fecundity, until now we have lacked a good estimate of the biological limit of human reproduction. An estimate of human fecundity can be made if good records are kept for a long enough period of time for a group which observes sex and marriage practices that positively encourage maximum fertility.

Such a group is unique and rare, but the authors of this excellent study have found one in the ethnic Hutterites of the United States and Canada. The social-psychological character of the Hutterites causes their level of fertility to approach the theoretical level of fecundity, the actual attainment of which appears to be limited only by marriage at the age of 18 or later. Assuming a younger age at marriage, the estimated fecundity of the Hutterites is 12 to 14

live births. This information should be of great value to all investigators in the field of fertility and of great concern to administrators of programs of aid to underdeveloped countries.

The analysis of other aspects of Hutterite demography provides clues, if not definitive answers, to additional theoretical and practical questions. What is the effect of maximum fertility on the differential mortality of the sexes? What is the effect of improved nutrition upon fecundity? What are the dynamics of human population growth under fairly controlled conditions? This study deserves wide circulation for the light it throws on these questions and for its general level of excellence in demographic research.

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*Demographic Yearbook, 1953.* By United Nations. New York: Columbia University Press, 1953. Pp. 443. Cloth-bound, \$6.50; paperbound, \$5.00.

*Population and Vital Statistics Reports. Statistical Papers, Series A, Vol. VI, No. 1.* By United Nations. New York: Columbia University Press, 1954. Pp. 31. \$0.30.

*International Research on Migration.* By United Nations. New York: Columbia University Press, 1953. Pp. 33. \$0.30.

The fifth edition of the *Demographic Yearbook*, issued by the United Nations, continues this authoritative international compilation of demographic data. The basic tables give total populations from censuses since 1850 to date; estimates of population since 1930; the age and sex composition for the most recent date; and births, deaths, marriages, divorces, and life tables for all countries for which such data are available. There is a useful index. In addition, there is a bibliography of (a) recent census returns, (b) periodic demographic statistics issued since 1920, and (c) life tables since 1900. There is also a description of an age-accuracy test developed in the United Nations staff, and a discussion of its applicability to census data. This volume of the *Yearbook* continues the practice of indicating an evaluation of the quality of the official data used by describing the source of the basic data and the method used for updating the figures from the most recent bench marks.

More recent population estimates and reports on births, deaths, and infant mortality

are published periodically in *Population and Vital Statistics Reports*, one of the series of United Nations Statistical Papers.

*International Research on Migration* is a report on the research activities undertaken in the field of migration by the United Nations and the Specialized Agencies since early 1946, and includes a summary of the main conclusions or results reached for each project.

CONRAD TAEUBER.

Bureau of the Census,  
U. S. Department of Commerce.

*Social Thought (from Hammurabi to Comte)*. By Rollin Chambliss. New York: The Dryden Press, 1954. Pp. ix + 469. \$5.00.

Rollin Chambliss, of the University of Georgia, has presented here, under the editorship of T. Lynn Smith, a textbook summarizing pertinent sociological theory prior to Herbert Spencer. It is organized into fifteen content chapters, with introduction and conclusion. The five ancient societies dealt with are Babylonia, Ancient Egypt, Confucian China, India of the Sacred Books, and the Hebrew society of the Old Testament. The middle chapters concern Plato, Aristotle, the ancient Romans, Augustine, and Thomas Aquinas. The last deal with Ibn Khaldun, the Renaissance and the Reformation, John Locke, Giambattista Vico, and Auguste Comte. For each writer or document, the attempt is made to summarize methods, views of human nature, conceptions of various social institutions, ideas of social organization, theories of social change, and views of the major ends which men seek in social life.

The *raison d'être* of the book is a conception that sociology differs from physical science. "Most of Aristotle's science is out of date; most of his analysis of social relations is not." Consequently the intellectual "tragedy of our age" is the failure to understand the sociological present because of lack of concern with relevant social theory of the past. This text is literate, adequate, and well written. It should have exceedingly wide adoption in sociological courses. It can be used as an introductory text in those departments where sociology is taught genetically, as a text for a second course in other kinds of departments, or as a text for social theory courses.

Two chapters not ordinarily found in such works concern Ibn Khaldun and Vico. From Khaldun the student catches a glimpse of the greatness of Arabian culture during the Dark Ages. Vico's superior un-

derstanding of social change is a worthy intellectual attainment. It is unfortunate that such a work as this cannot cover more theories and theorists—particularly the Machiavelli of the *Discourses* and that not so "gentle and kindly" Erasmus whose criticism of scholasticism was the final encouragement for revolt needed by activists like Luther and Henry VIII.

Three matters in the work shall be commented upon, not in terms of criticism, but of differences between the reviewer and the contemporary *wissenssociologie*. (1) Rome is still interpreted in terms of characters and events of the early kingship and the immature republic—XII Tables (450 B.C.) to Seneca (4-65 A.D.)—whereas its world role really came the next five hundred years, up to and including Justinian (A.D. 483-565). (2) Augustine is still analyzed as the man of his *Confessions*; his other writings—those dealing directly with "Sociological Thought" and of profound sociological significance—get faint lip service. For instance, why should one discuss the ideas of the family held by Augustine without at least referring to *De bono conjugali* or the Jovinian-centered documents? How can Augustine and his theories be separated from Paulus Orosius and his analysis of decay of social systems? (3) Finally, how can an author say, "Aquinas never really faced the problem of the relation between church and state" (p. 272) when his own bibliography for that chapter refers to *Regime Principum*?

All these ideas, and others, are interrelated; if we could get one straightened out, the others would easily fall into place. If only we could realize that Roman civilization had just begun—not ended—with the demise of the republic, then we would study the mature Roman classical law and experience. That would lead us to see that Christianity was a movement in "Roman Western Experience"; to look more deeply into the voluminous writings of Augustine; and to discover how and why the Hebraic Epic was substituted as a vehicle for standardizing good conduct for the earlier adopted Roman version (Vergilian) of the Homeric Epic. Once these steps were taken, we would realize that Aquinas was trained in Roman classical law of the Digest (resurrected by Irnerius in the twelfth century) and that thereby he put into Christian theory the main doctrine of modern capitalism—the legal conception of *usufructus* in property. (As a matter of fact, Aquinas pirated all the main theories of classical Roman law into the *Summa Theologica*.) With this background, the

Machiavelli of the *Discourses* and other neglected matters would fall into proper place and be better understood.

However, nothing in this "different sociology" of knowledge should be taken as a derogation of the valuable service rendered modern sociology by the combined efforts of Chambliss, Smith, and Dryden.

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*Essays in Sociological Theory.* (Revised.)  
By Talcott Parsons. Glencoe, Ill.: The  
Free Press, 1954. Pp. 459. \$6.00.

The present edition of Parsons' papers excludes seven essays printed in the 1949 edition but adds eight essays, some of which antedate the earlier edition. Except in one instance, this volume includes little of the newer developments of Parsons' work, such as is to be found in his *Social System* (1951).

Evaluation of Parsons' work is difficult. One has to trace out the relations to earlier or contemporary studies on the same subject, unaided by footnotes. Occasionally, widely adopted ideas are concealed in devious paraphrases. A labyrinthian style handicaps the reader, though not to the extent true of the *Social System*. Thus, those who would master and use his many seminal analyses are handicapped.

The various papers must be discussed cursorily, in groups:

Two essays on the present position and prospects for sociological theory remain sterling, sage statements of a professional goal.

The area in which (in the reviewer's judgment) Parsons' permanent contribution will prove to lie is represented by the paper on the role of ideas in social action and the one on the theoretical development of the sociology of religion. Perhaps the most fruitful studies are those dealing with "the professions and the social structure," "motivation in economic activities," and the legal profession; a chapter in his *Social System* represents a similarly fruitful study (on the medical profession) and might more suitably have been included here. A paper on age and sex and one on the kinship system—both related to the American social structure—deserve great praise.

The revised discussion of social stratification is sharper than the earlier one and reveals more insight into the complexity of status systems, with less tendency to reify analytical elements. Many essential but commonly ignored elements in the theory of stratification receive merited attention.

Unfortunately, in attempting to embody large parts of his "pattern variables" analysis, Parsons seems to make stratification encompass the whole sociological field; the result of this effort is perhaps as much confusing as illuminating. A companion paper on class conflict is competent but uninspired; despite his own training in economics, Parsons underrated his economics audience.

There are some less satisfactory chapters. Three papers (on propaganda, aggression, and psychoanalysis) seem to wander rather far afield from the topics, and the discussions are pedestrian. Four papers descriptive of particular societies (three on Germany and one on Japan) are more perplexing. Short of detailed evaluation, perhaps it can be said that the analyses are too conceptualized for a reader not already acquainted with the societies and uninformative to the specialist. Lengthy sections of these chapters, as well as sections of others, would have more appropriately been worked into other essays rather than being allowed to remain separate in reprinting. There is undue repetitiousness in the volume taken as a whole. This volume represents less of an advance over the general body of sociological writing than did the previous edition.

This necessarily brief review may be summarized by saying, without any intention of speaking paradoxically, that in the reviewer's judgment Parsons' reputation will prove to rest not on his theoretical but on his empirical studies—using those terms conventionally. His best work is neither descriptive studies (as on Germany) nor the more refined statements (as on "pattern variables"). It is in the intermediate zone where he deals with the fusion of social structure and ideologies that his relatively static, schematized, but supple conception of social relationships serves him and us best.

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*Parent and Child: Studies in Family Behavior.* By James H. S. Bossard. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1953. Pp. 308. \$5.00.

In this volume, Bossard brings together a number of the studies which he has directed under the auspices of the Carter Foundation. Several of these studies have been published elsewhere; others are expanded versions of his previous studies; and still others are reported here for the first time.



As is well known to students of family life, Bossard has long held that more adequate knowledge of the development of human personality must come from a detailed and careful examination of those commonplace experiences to which the individual is subjected in his day-to-day living. This is because social behavior is learned behavior, and the commonly repeated experiences in the family and other social groups are the learning experiences that shape personality. Consequently, he attempts to examine in detail the more commonplace influences within the family that impinge on the child during his development and to relate these to present and later behavior.

Some factors he examines for their influence on the child are the following: domestic animals, childhood visiting patterns, rites of passage, interclass marriages, parent's occupation, overage parents, family interaction patterns, and family size. In all of this research, chief reliance is placed on case-study materials. While it cannot be said that the extent and nature of the influence on childhood development of each of the many factors he has studied has been clearly demonstrated, Bossard's studies have certainly indicated the fruitfulness and the importance of concentrating at least some of the research attention currently directed to the study of personality development on what he terms the "minutiae of daily living."

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*Sociology.* By George A. Lundberg, Clarence C. Schrag, and Otto N. Larsen. New York: Harper & Bros., 1954. Pp. xxviii + 740. \$6.00.

Is the introductory course in sociology to become an introduction to the *science of sociology*? The answer given by Lundberg, Schrag, and Larsen in *Sociology* is an uncompromising "yes." Other postwar texts have generally given an example to show that human relationships can be studied scientifically; some have devoted as much as a chapter. The present text, however, devotes the first three chapters to demonstrating the use of the scientific method in sociology. Furthermore, chapter four is given to Population and five to Community, apparently because more exact statistical materials are available in those areas. Not until chapter six is the student introduced to Society and Culture. The first five of the eighteen chapters constitute an ambitious attempt to present soci-

ology to the beginning student as simply one of several subject-matter divisions of *natural science*.

Essentially, the first three chapters constitute a summarized and simplified introduction to research methods. As much of research methods as possible is included, but there is no way to condense into three chapters the materials which take fifteen to twenty chapters in methods texts, particularly for students who have no background in sociology. Chapters four and five demonstrate the considerable accumulation of research findings in the areas of Population and Community. From chapter six on, this text might be any one of a dozen current texts. There is, perhaps, a little more use of graphs and charts than in most, but these are used primarily to illustrate concepts and do not dominate the later chapters. The exercises at the end of each chapter are intended to give students an opportunity to do simple research, which may be done in class or individually from data readily available, such as census data; this, of course, is desirable.

The weakness of this text lies in its failure to deal realistically with the delineation of the field of sociology. Below is quoted the entire paragraph dealing with the field of sociology:

"Sociologists study the interaction of individuals and groups, that is, their social behavior. Sociology may be defined as a body of related generalizations about social behavior arrived at by the methods of natural science."

The above paragraph contains two very different statements. Is sociology the study of all social behavior, or is it the study of only that social behavior concerning which there is a *body of related generalizations arrived at by methods of natural science*? If one takes the latter delineation, the field of sociology is decidedly limited. That this is not meant, however, is demonstrated by the inclusion of all the areas ordinarily treated in introductory texts.

Sociology is gradually becoming accepted as a science. Even the *Saturday Evening Post* admits that it exists. Increased acceptance is stemming from both an increased volume and an improved quality of research. Arguments that sociologists are natural scientists, even convincing ones such as contained in this text, are unlikely to change the situation in any important respect. If such arguments are desirable at any level, they are more likely to succeed as part of the Research Methods course.

This is a well-written text—clear, non-



repetitive, interesting, and challenging—but the utility of the special approach employed is doubtful.

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*Sociology: A Book of Readings.* Edited by Samuel Koenig, Rex D. Hopper, and Feliks Gross. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1953. Pp. xv + 607. \$3.50.

In their preface, the editors of this collection of readings in elementary sociology point out the need for such a compilation because of the difficulty of making sufficient library resources available to large numbers of students in the introductory course. A second aim is to illustrate and dramatize the elements of sociology, and thus make these principles more meaningful to the student. In the judgment of the reviewer, these objectives have been attained here with better-than-average success. For the most part, the readings are more vivid and more illustrative than the textual content of several of the recent orthodox texts.

This book, which follows the customary pattern of topical arrangement, comprises twenty-five chapters in its six major divisions: "The Physical and Cultural Bases of Human Society," "The Individual and Society," "Societal Institutions," "The Human Community," "Collective Behavior," and "The Dynamics of Social Life." The Introduction—"Sociology and the Scientific Spirit"—is outside the chapter scheme. The chapters contain from three to seven selections. In some instances, the selections are so brief that they are more of a commentary than a genuine presentation of reading material. Double columns permit the fullest use of the available space.

The book contains very little textual material by way of introduction to each selection. Occasionally no more than a single line is provided for expository purposes, and there is never so much as a full page. Whether this is preferred usage must be decided by the individual sociologist. It should be pointed out, however, that only about half the selections are specifically and directly sociological; the remainder are illustrative of one or another cultural characteristic of our society. These selections will require interpretation for the student if they are to be more than merely informative.

Of the authors of the readings, approximately half are sociologists or anthropologists; a number of the remainder are analytical social scientists of distinction; and

a sizeable minority are leaders or public figures whose names carry weight but who may not be sociologically oriented at all. The selections from the public utterances of such figures do serve at once to "dramatize" and to permit the inclusion of controversial opinion. Happily, only a few of the readings are taken from the fervent pages of popular magazines.

In this book of readings, as in the great majority of treatises in general sociology with the cultural emphasis, there is a great variety of concepts and ideas, approaching a general survey of social science. The reviewer is impressed by the need for a book of readings somewhere between the introductory survey on the one hand and advanced social theory on the other.

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*Statistical Methods for Social Scientists: An Introduction.* By Lillian Cohen. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1954. Pp. v + 181. \$4.00.

It is difficult to evaluate an introductory text in statistical methods because of the difficulty of assessing why social science students fear and have a distaste for statistics. Since this book has no mathematical derivations and requires perhaps as little background in mathematics as any textbook available to social scientists, it is undoubtedly intended as an introductory text for undergraduates with the lowest level of attainment at the beginning of the course. Nevertheless, nearly all of the techniques usually included in an introductory statistics text are covered in this book.

Rather than try to evaluate the book, the reviewer will describe the features of the book relevant to its use as a text: (1) Since the book is short, approximately 180 pages (which includes many illustrations, problems, and tables), it would be much easier than is often the case to require a very intensive reading on the part of students. One of the major difficulties met in teaching statistics is that many students habitually cover the reading material of a course extensively rather than intensively. (2) A second feature of the book is that nearly all of the techniques covered in the book are introduced and discussed in the context of sociological problems. (3) There are several examples in the form of exercises for each technique discussed, and these are usually cast in the frame of a sociological problem. (4) The writing is quite clear; but again, it is difficult to know whether or

not additional points, made explicit at various places, would make the book easier for students with no background. (5) It covers most of the techniques usually included in introductory texts. It has somewhat more emphasis on the one-tailed test than is usually the case. A weakness of the book is an insufficient coverage of one of the most-used tests of significance, namely chi-square. This is discussed only in connection with a four-fold table, and the usual shortcuts for the four-fold table are not given. Measures of association are limited to four-fold tables and linear regression. (6) Although cluster-sampling is discussed in the chapter on sample design, there is nothing in the book on statistical measures or tests appropriate when independence cannot be assumed. This is perhaps a weakness when more and more sociologists are resorting to the cluster-sample, or the area-sample, as it is more frequently called. (7) Assumptions are verbally stated when included at all.

In the reviewer's opinion, this book is appropriate for an introductory text where students have no mathematical background. It is doubtful whether it will be helpful to the professional researcher who is already acquainted with statistical methods.

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*Methods of Research, Educational, Psychological, Sociological.* By Carter V. Good and Douglas E. Scates. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1954. Pp. xx + 920. \$6.00.

This book has been written "for field workers, graduate students, and members of the senior division of the undergraduate college who would evaluate the quality of conclusions, . . ." (p. v). It should be evaluated as such. "This volume is not a 'recipe book' of research methods, a 'cook-book,' a 'rule book' or a series of 'lesson plans' for problem-solving, reflective thinking, and research but rather, it is a discussion of concepts, principles, and procedures in educational, psychological, and sociological investigation" (p. vi).

Defining research as a way of progress developing from man's problems, the authors of this volume take their readers through chapters on "Formulation and Development of the Problem," "Survey of Related Literature and Library Technique," "The Historical Method," "The Descriptive Method," "Organized Forms of Descriptive-Survey and Normative Research," "The Ex-

perimental Method," "Case and Clinical Studies," and "The Reporting and Implementing of Research."

In view of the fact that approximately a hundred of the book's 920 pages are filled with the listing of nearly 2,250 selected references, one would hope that the development of thought portrayed and made available to the reader would correspond to the volume of the book and to the volume of material cited. On this basis it seems to the reviewer that the reader is likely to be disappointed.

This does not weaken the informative aspects of this volume; the material covered runs the gamut from the ideas of Plato to those of Norbert Wiener. At the same time, the book is filled with interesting inconsistencies which seem to reflect either a lack of editing or the development of seeming erudition at the expense of logical consistency and continuity.

It is, for example, a little difficult to reconcile the description of research as a creative experience (pp. 280-281) with the dogmatic assertion that research is "born out of man's problems" (p. 10) and is restricted in its scope to the resolution of problems (pp. 12-13). In this context, incidentally, the term *problem* is not clarified, so that the reader is left to project his own concept of *problem* into the meaning of the text. The meaning of the concept *closed system* also needs clarification. At one point closed systems are regarded as "nonexistent" and constructs of definition only (p. 457), while at another (p. 472), "feedback" mechanisms (cf. Norbert Wiener, et al.) are regarded as closed systems. Even less warranted is the use of mechanistic concepts to categorize aspects of human relationships ("Dynamics: Forces and Systems," pp. 438-492); while within this section is located the following cogent comment about mechanistic concepts: "... such conceptions miss much of the reality of life" (p. 452).

This emphasis on not missing "the reality of life" stands in contrast not only to the mechanistic concepts but also to the authors' emotionalized clinging to a teleological philosophy of man which is presented tenderly: "We like the words (and ideas) involved: purpose, motive, teleology, values, feelings, emotions, and so on. They seem close to the heart of human living. We regard it as a distinct loss rather than as a net gain to discard them" (p. 452). Such emotional involvement with concepts and reticence to subject the human being's "teleology" to systematic scrutiny (pp. 452 and 459) stands as a block to the "teleologi-

cal" development of the human being—through science, the function of which is to "extend man's intelligence" (p. 8)—and through research, the function of which is "to extend science" (p. 8). At the same time, it fulfills its purpose of serving man (p. 19) and approaches (?) its goal, "the good life" (p. 14), which is undefined and perhaps unattainable in view of the fact that research stands as "the endless frontier" (p. 6).

Further, the authors present an intellectualized philosophy of "knowledge as power" and the "brutishness" of feeling which, if logically developed, is inconsistent with the implications of the feelingful expressions used in their defense of the power of knowledge and the rational-teleology of man.

Much attention is drawn in these comments to the orientation of the authors which permeates the book from the beginning chapter, "Research as a Way of Progress," to the ending one, "The Reporting and Implementing of Research." However, in light of the authors' contention that the book is a "discussion of concepts, principles, and procedures in . . . investigations" (p. vi), the reviewer feels justified in commenting on the point of view from which the discussion is presented.

Truly, then, this book is one for the advanced student; as a discussion it will bring out in the conscientious student of research the critical faculties which he would use in any discussion of the topic.

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*The Indian Land Problem and Legislation.*

By G. D. Patel. Bombay: N. M. Tripathi, Ltd., Law Publishers, 1954. Pp. xvi + 534.

This is a documentary history, with critical commentaries, of the very complex land-reform problem of India. To those who do not know something of India firsthand, much of the book will likely appear quite formidable due to the character of the details. But anyone with an interest in contemporary India will be both impressed and instructed by the more interpretative parts, particularly the concluding chapter on "Whither Land Reforms," the chapter on the land donations campaign of the Ghandi-like Vinoba Bhave—the Bhoodan Yagna; and the forceful Foreword by Morarji Desai, the Chief Minister of Bombay State and a long-time student of land-reform problems.

The India of the pre-independence era was a society in which an almost unbelievable variety of interests in land were granted for a great many different purposes; revenue collections were converted into intermediaries with valuable property interests in land; military men were rewarded with income rights in land; village officials were paid by permanent interests in land; even the necessary services of craftsmen were assured to remote villages by endowments of land. With the passing generations, each interest could be complicated by the division of interests among heirs. When one considers that this process of awarding and dividing up special interests in land has gone on for centuries, with the particulars varying state by state and locality by locality, one may begin to visualize the complex of problems that land-reform legislation and programs are attempting to straighten out in India.

The first 200 pages of the book are devoted to a detailed survey of land legislation and program in Bombay State. The last 300 pages are devoted to a survey for India as a whole. Particularly in the chapters on Bombay State, a much more adequate glossary of terms would have helped greatly. Necessarily the author has referred to the different interests in land by their precise local names, but many of them will lack a preciseness of meaning to most American readers.

Although land reform legislation and administration are basically a state responsibility—with some 20 self-governing states—all such measures must meet the general provisions of the constitution of the Union of India regarding compensation for property taken and due process of law. The author estimates that the total cost of compensating the "intermediaries" for the abolition of their interest at 431 crores rupee—i.e., 4.3 billion rupees, or just under one billion dollars.

This book is undoubtedly the most inclusive summary and reference source available in English regarding the hundreds of different measures that have been legislated in India in recent times on the different land problems: abolition of intermediary interests, regulation of landlord-tenant relations, consolidation of holdings, etc. It is surely a most valuable source book, but it is withal a detailed and technical, rather than an interpretative, presentation.

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*Lund Studies in Geography: Ser. B. Human Geography.* The Royal University of Lund, Department of Geography. Lund, Sweden: C. W. K. Gleerup Publishers.

No. 8. *Die Beziehungen zwischen Hüttenwerken und ihrem Umland in Südschweden von 1750-1950.* By Olof Nordström. 1953. Pp. 35.

No. 9. *A Migration Schema: Theories and Observations.* By Bertil Wendel. 1953. Pp. 38.

No. 10. *Verteilung der Altersklassen und Geschlechter in den verschiedenen Gesellschaftsgruppen im südöstlichen Schweden von 1800-1910.* By Olof Nordström. 1953. Pp. 23.

No. 11. *Contributions to "Social Physics": A Programme Sketch with Special Regard to National Planning.* By Reino Ajo. 1953. Pp. 27.

Human geography is one of those much-needed branches of knowledge that move into the relatively unexplored marshlands between the cultivated (and frequently well-fenced) fields of the traditional sciences. It has a very close relationship, therefore, to the other social sciences, particularly sociology. In Sweden, as in Scandinavia as a whole, a large area of intellectual marshland was left unexplored by the fact that sociology only recently was established as an academic discipline, and then evidently in the rather limited form of social statistics. It is on this basis that we find Scandinavian human geographers cultivating fields of knowledge which in other countries, notably in America, are regarded as branches of sociology. The present series of publications is a case in point. The eleven papers so far published, since the series was started in 1949, deal with such topics as population, its distribution and migration, cultural innovation and diffusion, communication, and, especially, ecological relations—all subjects that are particularly familiar to rural sociologists.

The first paper under consideration here (No. 8) discusses the effect of small iron smelteries and glass works upon their immediate environs during certain periods of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. The study is notable for its utilization of historical source material from the archives of the smelteries, and it presents interesting data on the relative intensity of fuel and labor deliveries in the various zones of exploitation. The paper gives an impression of being fragmentary or even superficial,

which is probably due to the fact that it is a summary of a larger work.

The second paper (No. 9) is an attempt to develop a scheme or technique for an analysis of migration patterns. All persons born in a particular rural parish during the period 1896-1905 were traced through all their migrations up to January 1, 1952. About 50 per cent of the individuals included in the sample moved at least once during this period. The analysis is based on the number of migrations that each individual made (one person moved eighteen times during the period) and is particularly focused on the problem of patterns in urbanward migration. Severe objections may be raised to some of the conclusions drawn from the statistical data. For example, a frequency distribution of the number of migrations is used to show that one migration is more frequent than any other number (25 per cent of the migrants moved only once, 21 per cent moved twice, and so on), while an accumulative presentation of the data would show that 75 per cent of the migrants moved at least twice, 53 per cent moved at least three times, etc. Treating Stockholm as a separate category from other urban centers has distorted the comparable figures for rural and urban migrations throughout the study and, e.g., has led the author to believe that "the greatest part" of the migrants have moved to other rural communities on their first migration, while in reality more individuals moved to an urban center (including Stockholm). The basic technique, however, should have great possibilities in the study of migration, although it can be applied only where, as in Sweden, local population registers are available. Particularly in the study of patterns of urbanward migration, it seems that more conclusive and meaningful results might be reached by reversing the process, studying the "gravitation field" of an urban center by tracing in-migrants back to their origin.

Paper No. 10 is again a demonstration of the use of historical source material, this time for an analysis of differentials in population structures between various social groupings at various times in a particular region of Sweden. The main result of the study is that great variations are found in the population structures of different social groupings, that these variations have a functional relationship to the economic conditions of the region, and that they represent various stages in a historical development. A check on the German grammar might have been useful.



The next paper (No. 11) is a treatise in "social physics" and an excellent illustration of how scientific even the social sciences can be! The topic is methodological, and what appears to be the main purpose is to show that social phenomena—such as population density and mobility, traffic intensity, potential income, etc.—actually are biological and even physical "mechanisms" whose functional relationships to the geographical factor of distance from an urban market may be expressed in exact mathematical laws. This method evidently opens up unsuspected possibilities for observation and interpretation of social phenomena. Thus it can be demonstrated that around 1750 the influence of the city of Turku, Finland, upon its environs was inversely proportional to the square, square root, or logarithm of the distance—as the case may be!—and this even on the basis of dubious estimates in travelogs and government reports. Most significant is the observation that the purchasing power of a sleigh-load of goods brought to market, regardless of the nature of the goods (whether planks, rye, or flax) "was made greater the longer the haul"—as a matter of fact, that it "was made proportional to the square of the distance." The superiority of this method over the unscientific reasoning of the traditional social sciences becomes apparent when we compare this observation with the naively rational notion that the economic value of a sleigh-load of goods is somehow determined by the relative weight and bulkiness of the goods, the pulling power of a horse, and the condition of the road. Surely, there are exceptions to the mathematical rules. But that shouldn't disturb us. The problem is easily solved by reference to the concept of "normality." Actually, all social events can be divided into two categories, namely (1) the "normal" ones, which graciously stay within the "tolerance limits" of the mathematical equation, and (2) the "subnormal" ones, which do not thus conform. Nor should we let it disturb us that the subnormal events sometimes outnumber the normal ones. This is where social planning comes in: If a particular population deviates from the mathematically established standards, there clearly is a lag somewhere, and something ought to be done about it! In summary, it is evident that Positivism is not dead.

Is it true that the social sciences have to go through this stage in order to reach maturity? This paper contributes nothing to the understanding of human society be-

cause the part of it that makes sense is not new, and what is new doesn't make sense.

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*Class, Status and Power.* Edited by Reinhard Bendix and Seymour Martin Lipset. Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1953. Pp. 725. \$7.50.

This book, with the subtitle "A Reader in Social Stratification," contains 61 papers contributed by 58 individual authors and 2 committees. The editors state that the *Reader* is "designed to provide the student with a guide to the literature on social stratification." The five sections of the book are entitled "Theories of Class Structure," "Status and Power Relations in American Society," "Differential Class Behavior," "Social Mobility in the United States," and "Comparative Social Structures."

Approximately half of the book is devoted to "research findings on different aspects of the American class structure." This includes a few community studies and analyses of class differentials with respect to family behavior, mental health, politics, religion, etc. To the editors "much of this research is interesting and important," but it is not "cumulative either theoretically or methodologically." They attempted to offset the first-named deficiency "by including as much theoretical and historical material as our limited space permitted." The section on class theories includes twelve essays. Among the authors are Aristotle, Adam Smith, Veblen, Weber, and Sorokin.

The editors regard the lack of studies on comparative social structures as another major deficiency in the American literature. They attempt to partially compensate for this in a section on this subject comprising thirteen papers.

The editors point out the obvious, that the writings of some well-known authors on stratification are not included. "This lack is due to the difficulty of securing reprint rights." Also, "selections from books have been held to a minimum; otherwise, the necessary royalty payments would make the cost of this volume prohibitive." Within these limitations and with the exception of the omission noted below, a good selection has been made of available readings.

"The book is intended primarily as a text in courses on social stratification." With an absence of texts and books of readings in the field, this is certainly a worthy objective, but the volume has two noticeable



limitations: One is the lack of interpretive and integrating material. The editors have confined this type of contribution to the selection and the ordering of the papers and to the introduction "in order not to interfere with the work of the teacher who wants to use this volume."

The second limitation is absence of material on methods in stratification research. This the editors recognize, but they justify the omission on the basis of lack of space and the fact that a reader in social science research methods is to be brought out by the same publisher in the near future. Absence of material on method, however, is a serious deficiency to students of stratification who regard progress in the field to rest on more rigorous method and on a close tie of method and theory.

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*Individualism Reconsidered.* By David Riesman. Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1954. Pp. 529. \$6.00.

Here in a substantial and attractive volume are drawn together some thirty essays by the well-known author of *The Lonely Crowd*. They cover such a diversity of subjects and involve such a subtlety of treatment that a short review can do little more than suggest their scope and hint at their depth of penetration.

The unity of the selections presented is to be found in the psychoanalytical method Riesman employs, not in the subjects treated. A disciple of Freud and more particularly of Erich Fromm, to whose teachings he has added an unusually acute sensitivity for the delicate nuances of social phenomena, he finds the techniques of depth psychology revealing and useful tools in the study of society. Thus, because of the person-oriented, individualistic point of departure involved in the analytical method even when applied to units greater than man, he is able to draw together under the title of *Individualism Reconsidered* such apparently different subjects (to select a few at random) as the ethics of individuals, the issues raised by militant anti-Semitism, the relationship of the movies to their consumers, and observations on the contributions of such men as Veblen and Freud.

There is, most readers probably will feel, another unity in these essays, which joins with that of his other writings. It is a deep concern for the integrity of the individual, for the achievement or maintenance of in-

dependence against attacks originating both from within each man himself and from without, but especially from within, or at least within the "in-group." By comparison, many of his compeers still seem to concentrate on the less meaningful surface aspects of society's problems, and, because of this difference in level of operation, Riesman has sometimes been misunderstood, by "good" men as well as "bad." The now almost classic example of such misunderstanding may be found in his debate with Archibald MacLeish in *The American Scholar*, to which a freshly written addendum is to be found in the present volume. No one who has criticised him in this instance will do him justice (or understand him) until he has read this latest statement.

Needless to say, it would be foolish to claim that Riesman had made no errors of fact or judgment. There have, indeed, been those quick to point them out. However, anyone working out on the thin cutting edge of social analysis who produces so much of real and lasting value is entitled to many more slips than he has thus far made.

HENRY BERTHAM HILL.

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*The Australian Way of Life.* Edited by George Caiger. New York: Columbia University Press, 1953. Pp. xvi + 158. \$3.00.

This book on Australian ideals and values is the first to appear in the *Way of Life Series* planned and financed by UNESCO. It was prepared under the auspices of the International Studies Conference and edited under the auspices of the Australian Institute for International Affairs. The articles were written by Australian authors, each seemingly with an intimate knowledge of his subject. The articles cover seven different aspects of Australian culture. The first chapter describes the cultural unity of Australia, shows how Australians see themselves, and portrays the kind of people they wish to be. The second chapter deals with the aspect of family adjustment in a new environment. The third, fourth, and fifth chapters deal with educational, political, and economic aspects of Australian life. The sixth chapter describes the working of religion in the creation and control of the Australian way of life. In the last chapter, there is an analysis of the attitude that the Australians have toward the world community.

The articles present concise, informative, and apparently objective analyses of some of the more significant areas of Australian life. Although the form of the presentation is that of a symposium, there is little or no overlapping of content. Since it is the aim of the writers "to mirror and not to glorify," the reader gets a candid and, at times, a refreshingly critical picture. In fact, the writers, by their very frank way of commenting, may arouse criticism from their own countrymen.

The two outstanding chapters seem to be the first, "The Australian Nation," written by a lawyer, and the sixth, "Religious Institutions and Aspirations," written by a clergyman. The various chapters contain a fair amount of statistical material, but are not unduly cluttered by this type of data. Only the last chapter contains helpful biographical material. It would have been helpful to the reader if the authors had included some maps—both physical and political.

The publishers describe the articles well when they say, "Written with authority and clarity, these articles reveal much of the Australian character and Australian institutions, and from them emerges a picture of a virile young nation, whose importance in Pacific and world affairs grows yearly."

GLENN A. BAKKUM.

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*First Steps in Social Research.* By Manuel C. Elmer. Pittsburgh, Pa.: The Stratford Press, 1954. Pp. 133. \$2.50.

This book has two main features: First, it is empty of ideas; and second, it has its English part translated into a sort of Spanish that is, in fact, the creation of a new language.

The English part of this book has 62 pages—21 pages devoted to miscellany and the rest to a sketch of elementary statistics.

The distribution of the first 21 pages is suggestive. For instance: for the "Interview," 2 pages; for "Cultural Research," 1 page; 4 pages for "Social Survey Methods," "Types of Social Survey," "Community Life," "Monograph," "Comprehensive Survey," "Regional Survey," and "Experimental Survey." As is obvious, almost nothing can be said in such space.

As for the Spanish part, this reviewer did not understand it. He had to read the English part in spite of the fact that his mother tongue is Spanish. See, for example,

the title. It is translated as *Los primeros pasos en el resumen social*, which in English is: *The first steps in the social resumé*. It is not necessary to bore the reader with examples. It will be enough to say that in order to read the so-called Spanish part of this book, the Spanish reader should start to make his own vocabulary, which means he has to know English.

This book is too long for an outline; it is too elementary for a treatise; it is too condensed and incomplete for a textbook. It is just a book.

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Universidad de Chile.

## BOOK NOTES

*Learning Theory, Personality Theory and Clinical Research: The Kentucky Symposium.* New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1954. Pp. ix + 164. \$3.50.

The Department of Psychology of the University of Kentucky held a symposium for the integration of the three areas listed in the title of this book. The result is a collection of eleven papers from psychologists prominent in these areas. The subjects range from the most recent development in stimulus-response theory (Kenneth W. Spence) to "Some Current Research Issues in Clinical Psychology" (J. R. Wittenborn).

Some papers, as those of Harry F. Harlow on "Motivational Forces Underlying Learning" and Delos D. Wickens on "Stimulus-Response Theory as Applied to Perception," present results from research studies. Others are more in the form of critiques and general discussions of the relationship between the three areas. It is interesting to note that psychologists admit the inadequacy for practical purposes of learning theory developed from laboratory experiments. Knowledge of learning among mice and monkeys still leaves many crucial questions unanswered in the area of learning among humans.

Certain papers should be of interest to social psychologists. These are O. H. Mowrer's "Ego Psychology, Cybernetics, and Learning Theory" and Raymond B. Cattell's "Personality Structures as Learning and Motivation Patterns—A Theme for the Integration of Methodologies." Mowrer sees some of the principles of cybernetics—the "feedback," for example—as useful concepts which combine aspects of both learning and personality. Cattell proposes

the use of factor-analytic methods to study personality as well as learning, to determine the distinctiveness and the overlapping of these areas. This collection of papers will give one a look into some of the current issues in psychology.—E. A. WILKENING.

*Back of History.* By William Howells. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday & Company, Inc., 1954. Pp. 384. \$5.00.

This book discusses the origins of man and his culture, in simple language and in lucid style. It covers the story of mankind's development from the earliest evidence up to and including the Greek, Roman, and Egyptian civilizations. Much attention is given to the development of agriculture among the prehistoric peoples of the earth. An attempt is made to show the origins and distribution of early farming techniques throughout the world. This should be of interest to students of technological and cultural change.

This is the kind of book which provides interesting reading and at the same time adds to one's knowledge of man and his biological and historical perspectives. It is written more for the undergraduate than for the advanced student. It presents in easily readable form the most recent knowledge about the development of races and cultures as influenced by the physical environment and by the continuity of cultures through time.—E. A. WILKENING.

*Interpreting Social Change in America.* By Norman F. Washburne. Doubleday Short Studies in Sociology. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday & Company, Inc., 1954. Pp. xlii + 50. \$0.95.

This pamphlet is much more impressive in title than in content. At best, it is a brief comment on some of the theories of social change, on the nature of social movements, and on the direction of change in the United States. An attempt is made in the first two chapters to view institutional change as a product of changing human needs, of changing material in the environment, and of changing functions of social institutions. The process of change is presented as the result of certain agents of change, including: mechanical inventions, population change, changes in natural resources, physiological changes, and "the effects of neighboring societies upon us." As a brief essay on the nature and mechanisms of social change, this booklet could be of use as supplementary reading

for courses in which the texts do not cover this topic sufficiently.—E. A. WILKENING.

*The Social Background of Decision-Makers.* By Donald B. Matthews. Doubleday Short Studies in Sociology. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday & Company, Inc., 1954. Pp. viii + 71. \$0.95.

This is one of the most stimulating of the Doubleday Short Study series. It represents the results of research findings bearing upon the topic as well as a discussion of the ideas of writers in the field. These range from Mosca's *The Ruling Class* to Lasswell's *Power and Personality*. The main chapter is devoted to a presentation and discussion of findings of studies dealing with the social and personal characteristics of national political leaders in the United States. This is followed by a more limited account of the status, educational, and occupational backgrounds of legislative and cabinet officials in England, Germany, and Russia. An evaluation is made of the state of knowledge and lack of knowledge in this area. This will be stimulating reading for those attracted by the growing interest in the nature and use of power in present-day society.—E. A. WILKENING.

*The Foundations of Statistics.* By Leonard J. Savage. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1954. Pp. xv + 294. \$6.00.

Far from being an introductory text in statistical reasoning, as one might assume from its title, this work is a deductive excursion into the axioms of modern mathematical statistics. Specifically, the author attempts to demonstrate the validity of a meta-probability system, "the personalistic view," which, he feels, permits the solution of some of the more important difficulties in contemporary statistical systems. Judgments as to his success or failure will await careful analysis by specialists in mathematical statistics.—A. O. HALLER.

*Competição Monopolística nos Minérios do Brasil e a Previdência Social. Estudo de Oligopólios: Competição Monopolística Regional: Economia Geográfica.* By Salviano Cruz. Lisbon: Revista de Pesquisas Económico-Sociais, 1953. Pp. xxiii + 212.

The title of this volume indicates that it deals with monopolistic competition in the market for Brazilian minerals in relation to social planning. The subtitles make it clear that the author also attempts to treat regional monopolies and economic geog-

raphy. Much of the book is highly technical and of chief interest to economists, but parts of it contain materials of considerable importance for the rural sociologist. Part I in particular, which describes the structure of Brazil's economy, the distribution of mineral production, and the location of the production and consumption of iron and manganese, should be mentioned in this connection. However, Appendix II, which contains basic facts about grains and the grain trade, is also of significance. The social planning involved is largely that of controls, price-fixing, and anti-monopolistic governmental policies. Well-designed tables and maps are used freely, and they contribute greatly to the presentation.—T. LYNN SMITH.

*Guia para la Clasificacion de los Datos Culturales* (Guide to the Classification of Cultural Materials). By George P. Murdock, Clelland S. Ford, et al. Washington: Pan American Union, 1954. Pp. xxi + 248. \$1.00.

"The Guide is a translation, with some adaptations, minor modifications and a new analytical index, of the *Outline of Cultural Materials*, third revised edition, published in 1950 by the 'Human Relations Area Files, Inc.,' New Haven, Connecticut." The analytical index is a 36-page list of subjects contained in the *Guide*. This is the first of three technical manuals in Spanish. It is to be followed by a *Vocabulario Tecnico de las Ciencias Sociales* (Technical Vocabulary of the Social Sciences) and a *Manual* which will be concerned with "the organization and functions of cultural material files, the techniques and procedures of the analysis of source documents, the systems of reproduction and arrangement of the materials, etc."—C. L. CLELAND.

*The Sinhalese Folk Play and the Modern Stage*. By E. R. Sarathchandra. Colombo: Ceylon University Press Board, 1953. Pp. v + 139 + xiv.

Although primarily a descriptive account of the main forms of dramatic presentation in Sinhalese, this excellently illustrated volume also attempts to show the interrelation of Buddhism and village culture with the form and development of drama in Ceylon. The student of culture contact will be particularly interested in the ability of the Sinhalese to make wholesale use of Western plots, character names, costumes, etc., and still produce a work which is uniquely Sinhalese.—MURRAY A. STRAUS.

## BOOKS RECEIVED

*Brazil: People and Institutions*. (Revised.) By T. Lynn Smith. Baton Rouge: Louisiana State University Press, 1954. Pp. xix + 704. \$7.50.

*A City Is More Than People: A Study of Fifteen Minnesota Communities*. By Robert J. Holloway. Minneapolis: The University of Minnesota Press, 1954. Pp. ix + 63. \$2.00.

*Drag Ur Grytnäs Sockens Bebyggelse—O. Jordbrukshistoria*. By Sigurd Erixon. Sartryck ur Agaton Ericstam: "Grytnäs sockens" del II. Pp. 288.

*Dynamics of Groups at Work*. By Herbert A. Thelen. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1954. Pp. vii + 379. \$6.00.

*Eddyville's Families: A Study of the Personal and Family Adjustments Subsequent to the Rapid Urbanization of a Southern Town*. By Reuben Hill, J. Joel Moss, and Claudine G. Wirths. Chapel Hill, N. C.: Institute for Research in Social Science, Aug. 1953. Pp. 442. (Mimeo.)

*The Gift: Forms and Functions of Exchange in Archaic Societies*. By Marcel Mauss. (Trans. by Ian Cunnison.) Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1954. Pp. 130. \$2.50.

*Housing for the Elderly: Standards of Design*. The Massachusetts State Housing Board. Boston: Massachusetts State Housing Board, 1954. Pp. v + 17. Free.

*The Institutions of Primitive Society*. By E. E. Evans-Prichard and Others. Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1954. Pp. 107. \$2.50.

*The Interrelations of Demographic, Economic and Social Problems in Selected Underdeveloped Areas*. New York: Milbank Memorial Fund, 1954. Pp. 200. \$1.00.

*An Inventory of Social and Economic Research in Health*. By Frederick R. Strunk. New York: Health Information Foundation, 1954. Pp. 180.

*Isn't One Wife Enough? The Story of Polygamy*. By Kimball Young. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1954. Pp. xiv + 476. \$6.00.

*Mathematical Thinking in the Social Sciences*. Edited by Paul F. Lazarsfeld.

Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1954. Pp. 444. \$10.00.

*Mortgage Lending Experience in Agriculture.* By Lawrence A. Jones and David Durand. Princeton, N. J.: Princeton University Press, 1954. Pp. xxii + 233. \$5.00.

*The Social Sciences in Historical Study.* A Report of the Committee on Historiography, Social Science Research Council. New York: Social Science

Research Council, 1954. Pp. x + 181. \$1.75 (paper); \$2.25 (cloth).

*Sociology.* (Fourth edition.) By Jessie Bernard and Deborah MacLury Jensen. St. Louis: The C. V. Mosby Company, 1954. Pp. 427. \$5.00.

*A Theory of Social Control.* By Richard T. LaPiere. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1954. Pp. xi + 568. \$7.50.



## BULLETIN REVIEWS

Edited by Louis J. Ducoff\*

*Occupational Planning by Undergraduates at the State College of Washington.* Walter L. Slocum. Wash. Agr. Expt. Sta. Bull. 547, Pullman. 33 pp. Feb. 1954.

*Teenage Adjustments in Large and Small Families: Comparisons within a High School and College Sample in Washington.* Paul H. Landis. Wash. Agr. Expt. Sta. Bull. 549, Pullman. 23 pp. Apr. 1954.

*Church Participation and Social Adjustment of High School and College Youth.* Carol Larson Stone. Wash. Agr. Expt. Sta. Bull. 550, Pullman. 29 pp. May 1954.

These three bulletins make an important contribution to knowledge relating to the social, emotional, and occupational adjustment of high school and college youth.

The first study in the series, by Walter Slocum, was designed to obtain information concerning important factors influencing college men and women in their occupational choice decisions. Data for the study were obtained by questionnaires from 400 undergraduate students at Washington State College during the academic year 1952-53. This sample was considered to be representative of the entire student body in most respects.

Slocum found that (1) although Washington State College undergraduates came from families which were above average in income, they generally considered themselves members of the middle and working classes; (2) the educational level of the students' parents was well above the level of all Washington men and women; (3) most students were quite far advanced in occupational planning, all but 16 per cent having at least gone as far as choosing an occupational field; (4) only two of the background and personal factors examined—namely sex and farm residence—had any discernible influence on the selection of a particular occupation; and (5) there was a tendency for students from families with lower social status to be more specific in occupational choices than students from families with higher status. Although there was an inclination to consider specific technological courses directly related to chosen

future occupations most valuable, many preferred the more general and cultural courses.

The second study in the series, directed and reported by Paul H. Landis, is predicated upon the thesis that the "large family" as a factor in child development has been neglected and that more should be done to assess its influence in that respect. Data for the study were obtained from a comprehensive questionnaire from 4,377 high school seniors (approximately a third of those graduating in the state in 1947) and 1,424 Washington State College students in 1952.

A comparison of youths from large and small families revealed many significant social, emotional, and occupational-adjustment differences, in both the high school and college groups. Larger families were rated more frequently as authoritarian by both high school and college students, while the smaller families were rated more frequently as happy or very happy. Girls were much more sensitive to an atmosphere of authoritarianism or happiness in the home than boys. Consistent with findings elsewhere, the larger families had lower incomes than the smaller ones. As a consequence, youths from large families were much less active in social and extracurricular activities requiring substantial cash outlays than were children from small families. However, youths from the large families were more active in certain other types of organizations.

Considerable evidence is presented which seems to cast doubt on the old assumption that the large family is the ideal place for rearing a child. The proportion of friendless girls was as high in large families as in small, and the proportion with few friends was highest of all in the large families. The author concludes that the small family offers the greatest disadvantage to the boy, while the large family represents the greatest hindrance to the social adjustment of the girl.

Data from the third study in the series were obtained from essentially the same source as the second. The hypothesis that church attendance and social adjustment are positively related was tested by examining the association between the frequency of church participation and various indices of social adjustment.

\*Assisted by Elsie S. Manny.

Stone found that a better quality of adjustment was generally demonstrated by students active in church affairs than by those who were inactive. Both high school and college students who were active in religious functions were more likely to enjoy the friendship and companionship of others in their own age group, were more likely to express satisfaction with their own communities or neighborhoods, were inclined to view the future with less apprehension, and were less likely to have mental conflicts arising out of adjustment problems than students who were inactive in church affairs. She suggests that church participation is a causal factor in this superior adjustment.

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*A Century of Population Growth in Minnesota.* Lowry Nelson, Charles E. Ramsey, and Jacob Toews. Minn. Agr. Expt. Sta. Bull. 423, St. Paul. 39 pp. Feb. 1954.

*Migration in Minnesota, 1940-1950.* Charles E. Ramsey, Allan D. Orman, and Lowry Nelson. Minn. Agr. Expt. Sta. Bull. 422, St. Paul. 16 pp. Jan. 1954.

The first of these bulletins is written in the usual lucid style that characterizes the writings of its senior author. While the content maintains a high professional level, the style and emphasis of the report undoubtedly will attract the attention of technical workers in fields other than sociology and demography. The text is not cluttered with statistics but states facts and their significance with a minimum of the obstruction often found in population treatments.

The usual range of population topics is covered—growth, natural increase, ethnic composition, age and sex, marital status, and migration. The authors give considerable attention to two features of Minnesota's population which are of special interest in that state—ethnic composition and age-sex characteristics. The excess of young males in the rural-farm population is emphasized. There are a number of useful graphic and tabular presentations, and the appendix tables contain much useful population data by type-of-farming areas and counties. The authors seem to foresee for Minnesota a stationary population which may call for "considerable adjustment in outlook, economically and socially." They conclude their analysis with the statement: "In our striving for BIGGER and BETTER communities we shall have to give less em-

phasis to the BIGGER and more to the BETTER."

In the opinion of the reviewer, the second bulletin fails to rise to the level of the first in clarity of presentation. The bulletin is part of the North Central Region population project on migration, the general model for which was presented in the bulletin, *Rural-Urban Migration in Wisconsin, 1940-1950*, by Margaret Jarman Hagood and Emmet F. Sharp. The correlations of migration with such factors as reduction in number of farms, levels of living, use of hired labor on farms, farm mechanization, distance to trade centers, farms on hard-top roads, fertility ratio, average age of farm operators, and industrial factors provide some interesting and useful explanations for Minnesota's rural-urban migration. The relationship of migration both to the percentage of farms on hard-top roads and the distance of the farms from trade centers afforded an opportunity for an analysis of isolation factors, but the authors disregarded this. Generally these relationships support the conclusion that the greater the geographical isolation, the greater the outward migration. Geographical isolation, however, may be meaningless in the presence of other factors favoring communication. Indeed, awareness of a more favorable environment on the part of people experiencing geographic isolation may itself so define this isolation that the latter becomes something from which they seek to escape.

An effective summary of general characteristics (1940) of rural counties that lost and those that gained through migration in the 1940-50 decade is presented at the end of the bulletin.

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*Farm Income and Living Costs, 1946-50.* Myrtle G. Correll. Kans. Agr. Expt. Sta. Bull. 363, Manhattan. 54 pp. Feb. 1954.

This report presents in 39 tables a statistical summary of income and living expenses of 503 "farm and home account" families in Kansas. During 1946-50, these families submitted annual accounts over a period ranging from 1 to 5 years; 78 kept complete records for 5 years, 65 for 4 years, 46 for 3 years, 81 for 2 years, and 237 for 1 year, yielding a total of 1,171 annual accounts. As the author points out, these families do not constitute a random sample of Kansas farm-operator families; they can

be defined only as member families of Farm and Home Management Associations willing and able to keep detailed annual accounts. Such a group tends to be concentrated among the more efficient middle and upper income families (in 1950 the sample average net farm income was \$7,214; average size of farm was 780 acres, and average farm value was \$33,350).

For this limited stratum of families, the author has presented—in an able, objective manner—a wealth of material relating to expenditures on family living. The data illustrate the relative inelasticity of consumption expenditures and the year-by-year variability of income of farm families. Inclusion of comparable data for 1934-40, 1941-45, and 1951 shows the changes which have occurred over the 18-year period and indicates the need for a continuing program of account-keeping to provide a sound basis for long-run programs of farm and home management.

Following the preliminary tables which describe the general characteristics of the 503 families, the author presents a series devoted to consumption expenditures, utilizing standard classifications of income and family type, in addition to arrays by major categories of consumption. The report contains relatively few percentage distributions; for the most part the data presented are limited to the cumulated experiences of the 1,171 accounts of 503 families over the 5-year period. The 5-year averages of families represented from one to five times in the total sample cannot be evaluated adequately from the data presented. If, in each successive year, the eliminations and substitutions of families were equal in number and homogeneous in all variables affecting the consumption function, the 5-year averaging should show the average 5-year experience of a constant group of families distributed in a certain way along the life cycle. The data on family characteristics, by year, do not show complete "substitutability"; the number of families surveyed varies from 190 in 1946 to 316 in 1950; the proportion of family heads aged 50 years or over decreases from 31 per cent in 1946 to 23 per cent in 1950, a trend contrary to a sample maintained constant as of the first year, or a sample moving along the life cycle of the families included in the base year. The sample is consistent, however, in that the decline in the age of head is accompanied by a decline in family size (3.73 to 2.96, from 1946 to 1950).

The concept of farm income presents perplexing problems; most investigators now agree that the concept used should

vary with the purpose of the particular analysis. The author has employed a definition of net farm income that includes change in value of inventory, which presumably means the value at the end of the year subtracted from the value at the beginning of the year. An income definition which takes account of value of the change in inventory (change in physical inventory valued at prevailing prices) could also be employed. As Margaret G. Reid has pointed out, inclusion of inventory in an income definition introduces problems of estimation. If the Kansas Agricultural Experiment Station continues its analysis of farm account families (certainly a worth-while undertaking), more descriptive material on sources of income would be of considerable value to users of the data.

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*Factors Related to Levels of Living of Oklahoma Farm Families.* Otis Durant Duncan. Okla. Agr. Expt. Sta. Bull. B-429, Stillwater. 19 pp. July 1954.

The purpose of this study is to show "how certain features of agricultural organization relate to levels of living of Oklahoma farm families" (p. 5). Most data are from census reports; some are from the 1950 report of the Oklahoma Department of Public Welfare. The county-by-county distribution of certain characteristics is presented graphically, so that the reader can see the general relationship of various factors to level of living.

Two maps present the dependent variable, the Hagood Index of farm-family levels of living. The first map presents county level-of-living indexes for 1950, while the second shows percentage change in level-of-living indexes from 1940 to 1950. The greatest relative improvement over the decade was found in the 1950 low-index counties. This might be expected, since even a modest improvement in a low-index county would be large percentage-wise. It would have been well if the simple gain in number of index points for each county had been presented also.

Fourteen maps present independent variables, eleven showing absolute values for 1949 or 1950, but three showing changes over a period of years. Some confusion is created by this interspersing of data on absolute values with data on change. For instance, Map 5 shows percentage of total farm income derived from livestock and livestock products in 1949. The accompanying text states: "The relative impor-

tance of livestock as a source of farm income is generally at its greatest in the low-index areas. That may have contributed appreciably to the marked improvements made in those areas during recent years." To draw such a conclusion, data should have been presented on changes in per cent of income derived from livestock and livestock products.

In his conclusion, the author draws several inferences which are probably true but do not follow from the data at hand. It is stated that one of the problems raised by the study concerns "an inevitable lag . . . between a particular change in agriculture and its reflection in levels of living" (p. 18). The materials presented do not deal specifically with this, nor do they justify the listing of this, in the introductory summary, as one of the "highlights of the information developed through this study."

CHARLES FREEMAN.

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North Carolina State College.

*Kansas Rural Institutions. IX. Country Weekly.* F. D. Farrell. Kans. Agr. Expt. Sta. Circ. 300, Manhattan. 34 pp. Aug. 1953.

Of all the community institutions of rural America, the weekly newspaper is one of the least well documented. This bulletin helps to overcome that deficiency. Although many weekly editors would argue that the differences from one paper to another are enormous, much useful knowledge of weekly operations can be gained from this case study of a single Kansas newspaper.

The Overbrook Citizen is a little more than half a century old. It is a community weekly serving farming areas in four counties. This study gives some of its history, analyzes its editorial and advertising and news content, reports an opinion survey among readers, and gives some data on subscription and advertising rates.

Categories of news and editorial content have remained surprisingly uniform throughout the period studied (1941-52). The personal item, old standby of the community press, has since 1942 occupied at least a third but never more than half of total news and editorial space. Editorials consistently filled about 10 to 12 per cent of non-advertising space. News of schools and news of agriculture and conservation were two other prominent categories, each filling 5 to 10 per cent of non-advertising space.

Since 1948, advertising has occupied slightly more than half of the newspaper's total space. Display advertising for the 12-

year period 1941-1952 is broken down into "kind of commodity advertised," and this gives some hint of changes in the economy of the rural community. Farm equipment advertising, for example, expanded during World War II, has continued to be important, but showed signs of slipping in 1952, the last year surveyed. Foods and home supplies are the principal subject of display advertising, but home equipment and servicing continues to be an important category.

Interviews with sixty-eight subscribers helped to indicate how readers feel about the paper. Some principal findings are: Most readers of the Citizen also receive one or more other papers; editorials and editorial features are the most popular parts of the paper; more than two-thirds of the subscribers said they read "all" of the paper regularly; and nine-tenths describe themselves as regular readers of advertisements. Asked what features they "liked most," 40 per cent of the interviewees listed the editorials. Asked about "features liked least," another 15 per cent put editorials at the top of the list. These are the things that keep an editor's life interesting.

BRYANT E. KEARL.

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*Elements Associated with Activity and Inactivity in Rural Organizations.* Emory J. Brown. Pa. Agr. Expt. Sta. Bull. 574, State College. 41 pp. Feb. 1954.

*Family Type and Social Participation.* W. C. Rohrer and J. F. Schmidt. Md. Agr. Expt. Sta. Misc. Pub. 196, College Park. 24 pp. June 1954.

*Organized Rural Communities, A Series of Case Studies from Western North Carolina.* Selz C. Mayo. N. C. Agr. Expt. Sta. Prog. Rpt. RS-20, Raleigh. 64 pp. Apr. 1954.

These three studies lend themselves to only a limited amount of comparison, since purposes and methods of treatment are so unlike. Though all three studies are reviewed in one article, it should not be concluded that they are of comparable scope and significance. The two first studies test only one hypothesis in common. That is the extent of their similarity.

Brown's study is the most comprehensive of the three. It "focuses on the social forces influencing participation of individuals in voluntary formal organizations in three Pennsylvania rural communities." The



principal objective of the study is to analyze the factors which distinguish active and inactive participants in formal organizations. Such social factors as age, life cycle of family, size of family, income, formal education, occupation, length of residence, and standing in the social structure are considered. Social psychological factors were also studied, such as degree of satisfaction with community and personal services, degree of identification with the community, attitude-value systems, and self-perceptions that influence formal participation roles.

The Maryland study deals with social participation also, but in a more limited way. It points up the relationship of family type to intra-family participation and to participation in community, neighborhood, occupational, or other kinds of formal organizations. It gives some clues as to whether an interrelationship exists between participation in the family and participation in formal organizations. Its authors analyze their data to determine whether urban and rural families differ in their participation characteristics. Family type in the study refers to a five-category classification of family composition. The classification does not coincide with that in the Pennsylvania study.

Data used in the Pennsylvania study were of two types: (a) primary data obtained by use of a formal schedule in personal interviews, and (b) secondary data obtained from newspapers, books, and personal observation. A total of 624 respondents were interviewed in three Pennsylvania rural communities located in three different type-of-farming areas.

In the Maryland study, data were obtained by personal interview in 1,298 households of Prince Georges County. Of these, 741 were in the metropolitan area (greater Washington, D. C.) and 557 were in the rural (nonmetropolitan) area. Volunteer interviewers, who were assessing the county's public library program, were used. A more complete statement of methodology would have been helpful.

From the Pennsylvania study, one would conclude that small children in the family, large families, low income, little education, unskilled workers in the family, and low standing in the community (as judged by key informants) all seemed to make families inactive in organizations. Actives and inactives did not differ significantly with respect to type of family. These are conclusions one would expect. The findings of this study with regard to social psychological factors are perhaps of more concern to

readers. These findings support the hypotheses that activity in formal organizations is associated with satisfaction with life in general, with a tendency to emphasize the quality of interpersonal relationships rather than material achievements, with parents' activity in organizations, with community identification, and with a self-image of being at ease in formal participation.

The authors of the Maryland study have reported findings of a more limited scope. They conclude that family type influences intra-family participation and spouses' participation in formal organizations. They indicate that the evidence established further a positive relationship between high intra-family participation and high participation in formal organizations. When compared on the interrelatedness of participation within the family to participation in formal organizations, urban and rural persons displayed the same characteristics. The authors devote one page of their brief study to suggested application of these findings to the work of extension agents and specialists.

Mayo's report is a series of case studies of the organizational structure in six communities of western North Carolina. The report is designed to supplement teaching materials in the field of community organization, for students not able to get away from the campus for actual field experience. A set of general questions, rather than a formal schedule, was used in collecting data. The material presented is limited to that which could be obtained readily in the course of approximately two hours. Some of the case descriptions include evaluative comments or personal reactions of the author.

The report covers such information as why the community was organized, what its major problems are, committees and program of work, community characteristics, officers and bylaws of the organization, results accomplished, *et cetera*. As stated by the author, "No attempt has been made to summarize the similarities and differences which are portrayed in these six communities." It might also be pointed out that there is no clue given as to the meaning or significance of the details reported. Just how these communities could be made to live in the minds of the students and the cases to have value to them is open to question.

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*A Social and Economic Study of Two Resettlement Communities in Puerto Rico.* José Mariano Ríos and P. B. Vázquez-Calcerrada. Univ. of Puerto Rico Agr. Expt. Sta. Bull. 114, Rio Piedras. 52 pp. Aug. 1953.

"As a part of a larger program of social reform, the Government of Puerto Rico has fostered the establishment of rural resettlement communities designed to ameliorate the living conditions of . . . rural agricultural workers. Some of these communities appear to function successfully and others do not. The purpose of this study was that of isolating social and economic differences between two of these resettlement communities established by the Social Programs Administration. One of the communities was defined by this agency as 'successful' and the other as 'unsuccessful'."

The data for the study were obtained by trained interviewers using a questionnaire; 52 records were obtained in the "successful" community and 61 in the "unsuccessful" community. Following are the principal hypotheses tested, and the results for each:

The successful-community people would have a higher economic status than those of the unsuccessful community. *Hypothesis not supported.*

The leaders in the successful community would be more concentrated within the limits of the community, and there would be better agreement as to who they were than in the unsuccessful community. *Hypothesis supported.*

The successful community would show a greater community integration than the unsuccessful community as indicated by the factors of social participation, kin groups, and *compadre* relationships. *Hypothesis supported.*

Certain null hypotheses were tested:

"There was no significant difference attributable to the distance between the present and the earlier homes of the settlers in the successful and the unsuccessful communities." *Null hypothesis rejected. Distance from previous homes was significant.*

"There were no significant differences in the satisfaction scores between the successful and unsuccessful community." *Null hypothesis not rejected.*

"There was no significant difference between the successful and unsuccessful communities in the parceleros' knowledge of the Land Law Agency." *Null hypothesis rejected. There was a significantly higher proportion of the people in the successful community who knew about the Land Laws.*

"There was no significant difference between the successful and the unsuccessful communities in the attitude of the parceleros toward specific regulations of the S.P.A." *Null hypothesis rejected. There were significant differences.*

The authors give the following as the most important conclusions of the study:

"Leadership was a very important factor in community success. Leaders in the successful community were more concentrated within the limits of the community and there was more consensus on who the leaders were in the successful than in the unsuccessful community."

"In agreement with the observations of the S.P.A. officials, it appeared that the successful community was more integrated than the unsuccessful."

"Contrary to expectations there was apparently no necessity to recruit whole gross-families into the resettled communities; in other words, it seems that recruitment of *agregados* with only their nuclear families is sufficient for the success of the community."

"Persons who came from within walking distance of the community were more satisfied with it than those who came from far away, when the community factor was controlled."

"Settlers in the successful community had more knowledge about the Land Law agencies than those in the unsuccessful community, although the knowledge standard was low in both."

The authors acknowledge that this study is a first step in the analysis of Puerto Rican communities. It is a very promising beginning, and this reviewer looks forward to future community studies by these authors. The Puerto Rican Experiment Station is to be congratulated on the promotion of this type of research.

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*Labor Use in the Eastern Shore Truck Crop Harvest.* Wayne C. Rohrer and Joe R. Motheral. Md. Agr. Expt. Sta. Misc. Pub. 174, College Park. 34 pp. Nov. 1953.

This is a preliminary report on a survey conducted cooperatively by the Maryland Agricultural Experiment Station and the Bureau of Agricultural Economics, USDA, in 1952. Information was gathered on patterns of harvest-labor use on 172 truck-crop farms of four counties on the lower Eastern Shore of Maryland. "This information in-

cluded sources of seasonal farm labor, methods of recruitment, wage rates, and the extent, duration, and other conditions of employment. It was the purpose of the study to analyze the effects of such factors upon the utilization of available farm labor and hence upon production of truck crops in the lower Eastern Shore."

Beyond the statement that a sample of 172 operators were interviewed, no information on methods of study is given in this preliminary report. For purposes of analysis, farms have been divided into three classes on the basis of acreage in truck crops: small (less than 20 acres in truck crops), medium (20-79 acres), and large (80 acres or more). Other data have been cross-classified with truck-crop acreage. For most variables there was a continuum, with medium-sized truck farms falling between large and small farms.

It was found that large-scale truck farmers tended to rely more upon migratory labor, while smaller operators hired more local laborers. There was a tendency for local and migratory laborers to perform different tasks, and for crew leaders and crew members to perform different tasks. Although a majority of operators in each size group obtained their workers by informal, direct contact, there was a tendency for larger operators to depend more on formally organized methods of recruitment than the smaller operators. Pre-season arrangements for harvest workers have become rather common, especially among the larger operators. Operators of medium-sized truck farms were more successful than both large- and small-scale operators in keeping their workers as long as they needed them.

Wage rates decreased with increasing size of the trucking operation. However, this was more than compensated for by other factors, so that workers on larger farms generally earned more. Larger operators tended to plan their operations to provide more steady work than the other operators.

This study fulfills its stated purpose, and the conclusions are well substantiated. The report, clearly outlined and well written, begins with a concise introductory summary; in the body, seventeen simple charts present the major findings. The material is largely of an economic nature. It would be well if, in addition, some of the more strictly sociological variables could be investigated.

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*Rural Progress Through Co-operatives* (E/2524-St/ECA/20). United Nations, Department of Economic Affairs, New York. 112 pp. 1954.

This bulletin will be of real interest to agricultural people everywhere and to anyone interested in agricultural problems of the world. The authors show clearly that they have an excellent understanding of world agriculture. The reader will be impressed with the many illustrations of co-operative successes and failures drawn from large and small, rich and poor countries of the world. It is of significant importance that reasons for successes and failures of cooperatives are briefly, but concisely, presented in every chapter.

Chapter 1 establishes the setting for a discussion of voluntary cooperation, by listing and briefly analyzing the means of agricultural progress. Chapters 2 and 3 summarize the well-known but important principles, purposes, and determinants of successful voluntary cooperation. Chapters 4 through 12 specifically point out how cooperatives, of each important type, have rendered service in various countries. In all these chapters the reader is reminded that the cooperative form of organization provides no panacea. The report, however, makes clear the role of voluntary cooperation in such important areas as improving land tenure arrangements, providing credit, procuring supplies, marketing, and disseminating technical information. Most chapters have a conclusions section, and the final chapter presents the broad conclusions of the report.

Anyone looking for detailed solutions to specific problems of world agriculture may be disappointed after reading this report. Rather, the objective is to outline systematically what needs to be done if progress in agriculture is to continue. Another objective is to consider what voluntary cooperative societies can be expected to accomplish to further the end of continued progress in agriculture. For instance, the report clearly shows why cooperatives often need various types of help from government in order to achieve their objectives. Further, disintegrating forces of individual interest are always present to some degree and must be more than offset by a strong and relatively uniform demand for the service if the cooperative is to succeed.

This report is recommended without reservation to anyone to anyone interested in agricultural progress and the appropriate

role of cooperative associations in world society.

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Department of Agricultural Economics,  
Oregon State College.

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## NEWS NOTES AND ANNOUNCEMENTS

Edited by Samuel W. Blizzard

### ANNUAL MEETING OF THE RURAL SOCIOLOGICAL SOCIETY

**Minutes of the Business Meeting, September 7, 1954, the University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois.** The meeting was called to order at 3:45 p. m., by Nathan L. Whetten, president. Minutes of the meetings, September 4-6, 1953, as published in *Rural Sociology*, December, 1953 (pp. 412-421), were accepted as printed.

By motion duly made and carried, the action of the 1952 annual meeting appropriating \$200 from the treasury of the Society and transferring this sum to the managing editor of *Rural Sociology* was reconfirmed and made effective for 1954. The effect of this motion is to continue the policy regarding back issues of *Rural Sociology* that was established when the journal was moved to the University of Kentucky.

It was announced that the Executive Committee in behalf of the Society had accepted the invitation of the University of Maryland to hold the 1955 annual meetings at College Park, Maryland, on Monday and Tuesday, August 29 and 30. The Society will meet jointly with the American Sociological Society in Washington, D. C., August 31.

The secretary-treasurer reported on the financial year of the Society, ending August 10, 1954. A copy of the report is included as a part of the minutes of this meeting. The report was received by a motion duly seconded and passed.

The managing editor of *Rural Sociology*, A. Lee Coleman, reported orally on the journal during the current year. Following the previous custom, a formal report will be prepared at the close of the calendar year.

The Research Committee reported through Selz C. Mayo, chairman. A motion to receive the report was voted and passed. The report is included as a part of the minutes of this meeting.

The report of the Teaching Committee was presented by Harold F. Kaufman. It was moved, seconded, and carried that the report be received. The report is appended as a part of the minutes of this meeting.

The Extension Committee, Paul A. Miller, chairman, made no report.

The Committee on Elections, consisting of Sloan R. Wayland (chairman) and Frank W. Cyr, reported. The following candidates

were elected to the indicated offices of the Rural Sociological Society for the coming year: president-elect, Margaret J. Hagood; vice-president, Irwin T. Sanders; member of the Executive Committee, Selz C. Mayo; member of the Editorial Board of *Rural Sociology*, T. Lynn Smith; Committee on Research, Frank D. Alexander; Committee on Teaching, Roy C. Buck; Committee on Extension, Glen L. Taggart.

It was announced by Nathan L. Whetten, president, that Samuel W. Blizzard, secretary-treasurer, would complete his term of service at the close of these meetings. By motion seconded and carried, the retiring secretary-treasurer was commended for the efficient and gracious manner in which he had conducted the affairs of the office during his three years of appointment. The president then announced that the Executive Committee within its delegated powers had appointed Ward W. Bauder, University of Illinois, as secretary-treasurer for three years, beginning September 10, 1954.

The Membership Committee reported through John C. Belcher, chairman. There were 558 members for 1954 at the time of this business meeting. Belcher cited the cooperation of state membership chairmen who had made this total possible.

The Special Committee on Historical Documents of the Rural Sociological Society, authorized at the 1953 annual meeting, reported through Howard W. Beers in behalf of Charles E. Lively, chairman. The recommendation that the Archives of the Rural Sociological Society be placed in the library of the University of Missouri was by motion and vote adopted. The Executive Committee of the Society was authorized to work out details with the University. The report of the committee is included as a part of these minutes.

The Census Committee, Selz C. Mayo, chairman, reported. The report was accepted as information. The committee was thanked for its work and dismissed. The report is attached to these minutes.

The Special Committee on Classes of Membership reported through Olaf F. Larson, chairman. By motion and favorable vote the committee was commended for its work and continued for another year. The committee was instructed to receive further suggestions from the membership of the Society and to prepare appropriate amendments prior to the next annual meeting.



The committee report is included as a part of these minutes.

The report of the Joint Committee of the Rural Sociological Society and the Department of Rural Education, National Education Association, was presented by Douglas Chittick, secretary. The report was received and a copy is attached to these minutes.

It was announced that the Society is a sponsor of the National Conference on Rural Education, held in Washington, D. C., October 4-6, 1954. Robert A. Polson represents the Society on the committee arranging the conference.

The Auditing Committee, Randall C. Hill, chairman, reported. By motion, duly seconded and carried, the report was received. A copy of the report is included as a part of the minutes.

Ray E. Wakeley, chairman, Resolutions Committee, presented the report. The resolutions were adopted and the secretary was instructed to write a letter thanking officials at the University of Illinois. The report is attached.

The Executive Committee was instructed to explore liaison relations between the Farm Population and Rural Life Branch, Agricultural Marketing Service, USDA, and the Rural Sociological Society.

Howard W. Beers, official representative of the Society on the Council of the American Sociological Society, gave a verbal report that was received as information.

It was announced that the 1956 annual meeting of the American Sociological Society would be held jointly with the American Statistical Association in Detroit.

Nathan L. Whetten, the retiring president, presented the gavel to William H. Sewell, incoming president of the Society. Sewell announced the following committee assignments for 1954-55: Local Arrangements Committee: Wayne Rohrer (chairman), Harold Hoffsommer, Sherman K. Fitzgerald, Louis J. Ducoff, and Norman A. Roth; Membership Committee: John C. Belcher (chairman); Nominating Committee: Howard W. Beers (chairman), O. D. Duncan, Nathan L. Whetten, Sloan R. Wayland, and George M. Beal.

The meeting was adjourned at 5 o'clock.

#### REPORT OF THE RESEARCH COMMITTEE

At the last annual meeting of the Rural Sociological Society, the Research Committee for the 1953-54 year was "instructed to investigate recent evaluation efforts made by other academic professional groups and to report at the next annual meeting any proposal they may have as to a plan for a

new and continuing effort toward evaluation of the state of rural sociological knowledge."

In accordance with these instructions, a letter was sent to seventeen professional societies asking whether that particular society had either an evaluation committee or a committee performing such functions. Replies were received from thirteen of the societies. Eight of these thirteen reporting have no committee whose purpose it is to investigate the state of their particular discipline. (One person misinterpreted the letter and simply indicated that his society had no committee to review rural sociology.)

Most of us, I believe, are familiar with the work of the Research Committee of the American Sociological Society. It should be remembered, also, that this society has two other committees which might have some interest in this connection, namely: (1) the Committee on Training and Professional Standards; and (2) the Committee on Ethical Principles in Research.

The Society for the Study of Social Problems does not have a specific committee in this field, but it has a New Projects Committee which, according to the letters I received, may perform something of the function of an evaluation committee.

The American Political Science Association reports that it does not have an evaluation committee, but is hopeful of getting a "self-survey of the discipline underway soon." In 1951, this association published a report of the Committee for the Advancement of Teaching under the title of *Goals for Political Science*.

The American Economic Association appears to be doing a great deal along the lines of evaluation. The following is a quotation of two paragraphs from the letter received from the secretary of the American Economic Association:

1. The American Economic Association last year established an *ad hoc* Committee on the Status of the Profession, "to study the problems and objectives referred to in the petition on the status of the profession and to report its findings and recommendations." The petition referred to in the minutes concerned a number of resolutions of common origin, requesting the Association to do something about clarifying professional standards in economics—the purpose being to identify the formally trained professional economist and differentiate him from the self-represented economist and the quack. Since the former standing committees on public issues and the *ad hoc* Committee on the Freedom of Teaching, Research, and Pub-

lication in Economics were discharged, it was suggested that this new committee consider matters which might normally come before the older discharged committees, and prepare and submit an annual report on the status of the profession. I may add that this committee has not yet been constituted.

2. In addition to the work of the committees referred to above, we have a standing Committee on Research and Publications. This committee has been quite active since World War II in initiating reports on research activities and in the preparation and publication of the *Survey of Contemporary Economics* (Volumes I and II) and the "Reading Series" (republishing of articles in selected fields, six volumes of which have been published and the seventh is now in final stages of preparation).

The American Psychological Association appears to have a rather ambitious program of evaluation under the general heading of "Study of the Status and Development of Psychology in the United States." They have two major programs under way—Project A: Analysis of Psychological Science; and Project B: Occupational, Educational, and Institutional Relations of Psychology. It might be pointed out, too, that the *American Psychologist* for March, 1954, contained an article entitled "The APA Study of Psychologists," by Kenneth E. Clark.

Several of the associations contacted, both those with and those without evaluation committees, expressed interest in exchanging points of view or actually collaborating on similar projects in their respective fields. I will be very happy to turn over my correspondence to any group of the Rural Sociological Society interested in continuing this exploratory work.

A second project undertaken by the 1954 Research Committee was that of attempting to determine the thinking of a large number of rural sociologists relative to the functions of the standing Committee on Research. A letter requesting thoughts and opinions was sent to forty-eight members of the Society. I believe that I am correct in stating that these forty-eight included every one of the living persons who have been elected to the positions of president, vice-president, members of the standing Committee on Research, and members of the Board of Editors of the journal, as well as appointed officials such as secretary-treasurer and managing editor of the journal. Replies were received from thirty-one of the members whose opinions and attitudes were solicited. (One person stated that he was not now a member of the So-

ciety and did not wish to commit himself.)

First of all, it should be pointed out that there is no unanimity even as to the desirability of maintaining an elected standing Committee on Research. I believe, however, that the weight of opinion is that such a committee can perform some major functions for the Society and for the discipline. I will try, therefore, to summarize what appear to be the major points of view which have come out of this survey.

First, the Research Committee should have some direct responsibility for planning one or more sessions of our annual meeting.

Second, there needs to be a closer relationship with the Research Notes of *Rural Sociology*.

Third, there should be a closer working relationship with the officers and the Executive Committee of the Society.

Fourth, after these obligations have been discharged, the individuals comprising this committee should hold sway and should take realistically the last part of Article 2, Section 1, of the Bylaws, which says, "... and to make such reports and recommendations to the Society as it may see fit."

Two or three other ideas were expressed which appear to me to have considerable merit, and they are passed along as individual contributions for your information. First, if the standing committee is retained as an elective body, then these elected members should be consulted prior to the appointment of any special research committee. Second, there was some feeling that a critical appraisal of published materials by rural sociologists is needed about every five years. It was felt that the Research Committee could assume this responsibility or could "farm it out," as it saw fit. Third, one member strongly urged that a list of the federal Experiment Station projects should be obtained and published annually in *Rural Sociology*. Fourth, it was suggested by one member that perhaps a card might be developed and used by the secretary for securing a census of published materials. This business of a census was batted around in several of the letters, but this suggestion of the secretary performing this function appears to have some merit. Perhaps we could add to the official letterhead, "Have you reported your published research?" A final suggestion which seems to me, at least, to have some merit is as follows: "It is suggested that the president appoint a committee consisting of the chairmen of the committees on Research, Teaching, and Extension to re-

view the functioning of these committees in recent years and to formulate recommendations to the Society regarding the future work of these committees."

Respectfully submitted,

SELZ C. MAYO (chairman)

#### REPORT OF THE TEACHING COMMITTEE

*Activities of the Committee.*—The two major tasks of the committee this year were: (1) the organization of a section on teaching at the annual meeting of the Society, and (2) the preparation of this report. The program at the annual meeting was on the topic "Status of, and Selected Problems in Teaching the Undergraduate Courses in Rural Sociology." It consisted of six short papers, a panel discussion, small group discussion and reports, and general discussion. The organization of a session at the annual meeting was one of the recommendations of last year's Committee on Teaching.

A mimeographed statement was distributed to all persons attending the session. This statement consisted of the agenda, a summary of the six papers, and a suggested focus for panel thinking and small group discussion. Three of the papers, in condensed form, are attached to this report as evidence relating to the major problem areas developed by the committee. The authors of two other papers read at the session have submitted them to *Rural Sociology* as separate articles.

This year the committee conceived of its function as that of assisting in the continuing evaluation of rural sociology teaching. It focused on summarizing materials on the status of undergraduate teaching and on pointing up some central questions concerning its future development. The three surveys utilized in the deliberations of the committee were: (1) the report, "Resident and Extension Teaching," by the subcommittee of the North Central Regional Committee on Rural Sociology; (2) a survey of "Teaching of Rural Sociology in Southern States," by a member of the Society's Teaching Committee; and (3) a survey made by Cornell University staff members.

In order to carry out its task, the committee invited the participation of interested members of the Society. As a result, four persons in addition to the three elected members of the committee played an important part in organizing the session at the annual meeting and in preparing this report. A number of other members of the Society made a contribution to this report through their participation in the

above-mentioned session and through individual suggestions to the committee.

*The Status of Undergraduate Teaching.*—Several observations may be made from the three surveys on the teaching of rural sociology which were utilized by the committee. As two of the surveys dealt entirely with the land-grant colleges and the other included a large number of them in its sample, these observations pertain largely to this group of schools.

The following deal with what is taught in the introductory course or courses and who make up the student body of these courses:

1. The courses in most schools are still strongly conceptually oriented and organized around research findings.
2. Most schools give no more than one course in rural sociology. Only a few offer an undergraduate major in the field.
3. Most rural sociology classes are made up of a motley group of students as to level of training and vocational interest.
4. Although a few schools offer exceptions, relatively few agricultural students and other practitioners are taking rural sociology.
5. Only a very small percentage of the students in the introductory classes in rural sociology are sociology majors.

A number of problems common to at least several institutions were suggested. These were regarded as limitations on the development of undergraduate teaching, both as to the quality of the work and as to the number of students enrolled. Some mentioned frequently were:

1. *The gaining of administration support for courses in rural sociology.*—One of the major difficulties was the competition for students with other departments, especially technical agriculture departments.
2. *The importance of teaching in the total program of a department.*—Some felt that teaching was treated with too much indifference. It was handled only after research and other activities had been adequately performed.
3. *Selection and training of teachers.*—Questions were raised as to the orientation of the most effective teacher. Either he would be primarily research- or action-oriented, or both; a young teacher or a more experienced one, etc. It was suggested that in-service training and training in teaching methods were desirable.

4. *Content of the course.*—The question was raised as to the relative weight given to theory and substantive matter. Also, should it be concerned entirely with American culture or be a study of comparative rural cultures?

5. *Level of the first course.*—There was a question as to whether it should be primarily for upper-class students, sophomores, or freshmen.

There appeared to be no disagreement with the position that the course should be student-oriented, although the full implications of this emphasis were not made explicit. Much interest was expressed in alternatives other than the traditional lecture method of teaching. It was recognized, however, that methods were not ends in themselves, but only means.

*Courses for Practitioners.*—A central task in evaluating and developing the undergraduate courses is to establish their objectives. Major objectives suggested were: (1) presenting the findings of social research; (2) providing knowledge and skills for rural practitioners, both lay and professional; (3) developing "a keener awareness and better understanding of the rural world"; and (4) helping the student in his personal adjustment. Serious question was raised as to whether these several objectives could be realized in the same course.

If it is agreed that the course should be primarily student rather than subject-matter oriented, the actual and potential student body should provide some basis for determining objectives and content of the course work. The student body was found to be made up largely of potential and active practitioners, and this leads to a consideration of organizing work for such individuals. Raising the question of need for such course orientation and listing some of the problems and possibilities involved were major concerns of this committee and are treated in the attached addenda.

The first addendum is a paper which describes a curriculum for practitioners in rural organization in one of the land-grant institutions. In this institution, course sequences are of two types, namely: (1) those oriented primarily for the professional sociologist; and (2) those oriented for the rural practitioner. A description of these two types of objectives, research and application, is a part of the larger question of the relative roles of the teacher and the researcher in rural sociology. Some might contend that the distinctiveness of rural sociology as a discipline lies not in the research role—work in research methodology

and theory—but rather in the application of this knowledge—the relation to action and the implications for a social technology.

With the growing interest in application, teaching methods other than the traditional lecture approach are gaining in interest and significance. Two papers utilized by the committee dealt with field procedures in teaching. Teaching procedures, especially those relevant for practitioners, are treated in all three of the papers which follow.

*Future Efforts.*—It is recommended that the Teaching Committee have a session at the annual meeting next year, as was the case this year. In planning and in carrying out this session, the participation of the members of the Society interested in teaching should be encouraged.

It is felt that the work of the committee should be, as much as possible, cumulative. This year attention was given to over-all surveys and to the need for practitioner training. Next year some equally significant area or areas may well be selected for intensive study. One suggestion has been that the core content of the introductory course be given intensive analysis and discussion. Although this has been discussed in the past, it is probably an area which needs continuing attention as a new generation of teachers and new materials and teaching orientations come on the scene.

Respectfully submitted,

Elected members:

J. ALLAN BEEGLE  
LELAND B. TATE  
HAROLD F. KAUFMAN (chairman)

Contributors:

J. EDWIN LOSEY  
WILLIAM W. REEDER  
WM. MCKINLEY ROBINSON  
ARTHUR F. WILEDEN

**Addendum A: Rural sociology courses at Cornell University oriented for practitioners.**

—The teaching program at Cornell has two major emphases which are distinctly different in point of view and approach. The first is designed primarily to acquaint the student with the concepts of the field, sociological history and theory, research methodology, and rural sociological research findings. It is also designed to teach the skills which are essential in doing sociological research. It is the traditional rural sociological program, and its counterpart can be found with varying shades of difference on most campuses. The second,



which I will call "sociology for practitioners," is specifically designed for persons who do not plan to be rural sociologists or to do sociological research, but who will be working in positions and programs involving people and groups, and in which some sociological knowledge and skills would be very useful. Such persons as teachers, ministers, missionaries, organization officers and leaders, and persons who plan to be active community members, as well as extension workers from the United States and from other countries, belong in this category. Graduate students planning to teach or to do extension work in rural sociology include several of these courses as a part of their professional training. It is this second program that I would like to describe briefly. To do this, I will point out a few distinguishing characteristics of the five courses which reach most of the students in this program of rural sociology for practitioners. There are other courses which fit into this program also; but they reach fewer students, and the same general characteristics apply to them.

In the first four courses described below, 90 to 95 per cent of the students are likely to become practitioners. In the fifth course, at least three-fifths will be applying their training as teachers or in extension-type activities.

1. R. S. 12—*Effective Community Living*. For: Persons who wish to be active community members. Purpose: To help students acquire those understandings, skills, and attitudes which will enable them to function effectively as active community members.

2. R. S. 105—*Organization Methods*. For: Leaders of all types of organizations, both lay and professional. Purpose: To help organization leaders and advisors to organize those understandings, skills, and attitudes which will enable them to increase the effectiveness of their organizations and groups.

3. R. S. 111—*Problems of Community Organization*. For: Community members and organization leaders who desire to get the people and organizations of the community to work together on projects and activities, and for professional leaders who are advising such individuals. Purpose: To help students acquire those understandings, skills, and attitudes which will enable them to help the people and groups of a community to work cooperatively together on shared problems.

4. R. S. 132—*Rural Leadership*. For: Professional leaders and persons prepar-

ing for professional leadership. Purpose: To help professional leaders with their leadership problems.

5. R. S. 212—*Rural Sociology*. For: Majors and minors in rural sociology and advanced students in other fields. Purpose: To give an understanding of present-day rural society in the United States, and to give an introduction to methods, techniques, and sources of help useful to the professional worker in rural areas.

*Some characteristics of the courses in this program: The content.*—The content of most of these courses is quite different from that of the traditional courses. The central core of these courses is built around the problems which arise in relation to common positions and roles in which the practitioner will function and around a series of group processes designed to achieve his objectives, rather than around discrete concepts or a logical organization of subject matter. While there is some emphasis on "what," to get an understanding of the nature of the phenomena, by far the greatest emphasis is on "why" and "how." Why does something happen? How can you proceed to solve the problem which it presents? and, Why do certain methods work better in this situation than others? Even where a particular topic is the same as in the traditional course, the treatment is different because the purpose is different.

*Principles.*—While principles and generalizations are stressed just as much in this program as in the traditional program, it is in a different manner. Here principles are related to problems to explain why the problems occur or why a particular attempted solution receives the reaction that it does. Thus, a principle is touched on wherever it applies, and it is seen in relation to its application. Principles and generalizations become working tools to analyze and understand problems, rather than facts to be remembered.

*Different emphasis on things to remember.*—Class members are expected to be able to put the things they have learned to use in analyzing problems and working out practical programs for their solution. There is much less emphasis on facts to be remembered.

*Research facts viewed differently than in the traditional program.*—Facts are studied in relation to problems, and a fact is considered a resource only as it has use in analyzing or solving a problem. The data collected in county, community, and organization studies are selected not because



they are interesting or tell us generally what is going on in the world about us, but because they are considered to be significantly related to the problems and programs of persons occupying the positions and roles for which the course is designed.

**Broad coverage.**—Problems are not respecters of traditional departmental lines. These courses draw heavily on sociology, social psychology, psychology, and anthropology.

**Nontechnical language.**—Technical language of the field is purposely avoided. While there is some loss in precision, it is necessary to use the nontechnical language to communicate meaningfully with the students who come into the courses, and in order to maximize their learning. Also, since people tend to pass on their knowledge in the same terms in which they receive it, the nontechnical language prepares them to communicate with the people with whom they will be working on the job.

**Confidence.**—Students learn to have confidence in themselves and in the human resources within the group, as well as in research and in experts. Some of these courses send them first to the research findings and the experts; others have the group tackle the problem first, then go to the research findings and the experts to see how their findings compare. Since research has not been done on many of the problems with which people are faced, it is important that students learn to attack their problems themselves.

**Textbooks.**—Only one of the five courses uses a textbook; the existing texts do not fit this type of course. The sociology text describes conflict; the social psychology text tells something of why it happens; but neither treats the problem of how to avoid an existing conflict or how to solve one, which are the problems that confront the practitioner.

**Different skills.**—Instead of the research skills of the traditional program, the students in this program are given training and experience in group process skills: problem analysis; program planning; program evaluation; and county, community, and organization analysis. They learn skills useful in the process of community organization. They learn how to lead group discussions; how to observe for group effectiveness; and how to set up learning situations which will give insight, change skills, change beliefs, and change attitudes. In

line with the principle of transfer, there is considerable emphasis on learning by doing and on methods and procedures which can be used in the field.

**Greater variety of teaching methods.**—In addition to the usual lecture and question-and-answer sessions, frequent use is made of small group discussion, large group division, sociodrama, panels, symposiums, and committee projects and activities are frequently used. By using the method which best fits the subject and the purpose, the students get experience with a variety of methods and tools and learn how to tailor-make methods to fit their own purposes. Three courses have laboratory periods, and all of them have projects which provide field experience.

Most of these courses were designed to teach the practitioner the kinds of things he could use, in a way that he would use them. We do not know how successful we have been. Many undergraduates return after a year or two on a job to say they are finding constant use for the things they have learned. Experienced extension workers from the United States and from foreign countries indicate that this is just the kind of training they need for their work. These and other indications lead us to believe that we are probably moving in the right direction.

Submitted by

WILLIAM W. REEDER

**Addendum B: Twenty beginning courses in rural sociology: content, teaching methods, and instructor's satisfaction.**—This report is based on data collected by Alfred Barnabas, a graduate student at Cornell University, as a portion of his Master's essay completed in 1951. It is an analysis of the responses of twenty rural sociology instructors. These individuals gave information as to the objectives of the beginning rural sociology course, topics treated, concepts emphasized, and teaching methods.

Six objectives of the course were listed by ten or more persons. These in order of their frequency were: (1) to acquaint students with the concepts in the field of sociology; (2) to teach basic principles of human relations; (3) to teach those things which will enable the student to function effectively as an individual, as a citizen, and as a community member; (4) to acquaint the student with significant research findings in the field of sociology; (5) to give the student an introduction to sociology by having him sample intensively one or two

areas of sociological activity so that he can see how the sociologist makes his studies and how he uses the data which he gets; and (6) to acquaint students with the social problems of the present day.

The three highest ranking objectives are quite different and imply different content and teaching methods. It is doubtful whether all of them can be achieved adequately by the same course and by the same instructor.

The content of the courses and the teaching methods indicate that most of the twenty courses were traditional subject-matter courses taught by the lecture method, even though at times discussion methods were used.

There was no great unanimity as to the topics or the concepts treated. More than a score of topics were listed and an equal number of concepts were stressed by one or more instructors. No concept was listed by more than two-thirds of the instructors, and most of the concepts were listed by far fewer than half the instructors.

Only a few instructors were using teaching methods other than the traditional lecture and discuss. There were, however, a few innovators. Most teachers tried to present their own point of view along with the text.

Most students spent their outside time reading the text or selected readings. Few had the opportunity to analyze problems and to get information about them, or to work on projects. Less than half of the instructors used field trips, whereas one made nine or more trips during the course.

Most instructors seemed quite satisfied with their courses as they are, but about a third were not; no one said he was "very satisfied."

Submitted by

WILLIAM W. REEDER

**Addendum C: The teaching of rural sociology.**\*—In this report the committee offers a statement concerning objectives for teaching in rural sociology, organization of teaching in our colleges and departments, general considerations in designing courses

of instruction, and several methods and techniques of teaching.

**Objectives.**—In considering our objectives, we are aware of different categories of students. There are those who will live in rural areas, or in other areas influenced by rural society, and who will participate in rural affairs as laymen or volunteer leaders rather than as professional workers in any field. There are students who will become professionals in some field other than sociology—e.g., soils or forestry. There are a few students interested in becoming professional rural sociologists. Finally, there are students who will drop out somewhere along the way before completing their college work.

With these preliminary observations in mind, we have formulated four chief objectives of teaching in rural sociology:

1. The first objective is to develop a keener awareness and better understanding of the world through study of the social and cultural environments in the agricultural and rural setting, and their relation to the urban, the physical, and the biological environments.
2. A second objective is to teach elementary procedures and concepts of social analysis (in rural contexts) as a necessary preliminary to problem-solving.
3. A third objective is to teach approaches to the application of sociological and related knowledge (in rural contexts); to equip students to be more intelligent and useful in planning and directing agricultural and rural affairs in a changing world.
4. A fourth objective is to teach advanced procedures of social analysis, in preparation for professional careers in rural sociology.

The foregoing statement of objectives presents a sequence of successively higher and more difficult levels, not all of which can be reached at once. The first objective is sought in teaching freshmen and sophomores, especially, but not exclusively, in agriculture and home economics.

**Institutional organization for teaching rural sociology.**—Different forms of internal institutional organization are possible; there probably is not a standard or a "best" pattern. The most important single consideration, regardless of the pattern of organization, is the competence and performance of the rural sociologist.

Other things being equal, however, rural sociology has developed best at those insti-

\*A condensation of the report of the Subcommittee on Resident and Extension Teaching, of the North Central Regional Committee on Rural Sociology. Members of the subcommittee who formulated this report are: Harold Capener, Ohio State University; Frank D. Farrell, president emeritus, University of Kansas; Clinton L. Folse, University of Illinois; Ed Losey, Purdue University; Howard M. Sauer, South Dakota State College; Arthur F. Wieden, University of Wisconsin; and Howard W. Beers (chairman), University of Kentucky.

tutions which recognize it as coördinate with other fields in agriculture. This coördinate status should appear in the departmental name, in the identification of courses in catalogues, in the titles and ranks of personnel, and in financial support of research, resident teaching, and extension teaching. The burden of proof that rural sociology deserves coördinate status, of course, is on the rural sociologist.

The work in rural sociology and in "general" sociology should be compatible and coördinated. We feel that in general there is need in the rural sociology unit for a minimum of one course at each of the levels of objectives outlined above, at least one course being required of all students in agriculture and home economics. Other courses should be in general sociology, unless there is need for highly specialized advanced courses on "problems."

*Courses.*—The first course should be one in introductory sociology, with heavy reliance on rural materials. It should be organized around the major sociological concepts; but as a teaching device the concepts should be induced, with the help of students, from particular concrete materials. There is no use trying to sugar-coat sociology by making it seem to have simple solutions to everyday problems, or by pretending that this subject does not need to have technical terms.

All rural sociology is "rural-urban" sociology, in a sense, because rural and urban life are understood in terms of comparison. There is no use being burdened with the hyphenation, however. Let there be unabashed labeling of courses as "rural."

*A few comments on teaching methods and techniques.*—A good technique poorly applied is probably less effective than a poor technique skillfully used. The challenge in teaching is to apply fundamental principles of learning, often summarized in the short-cut expression, "learning by doing." The teacher of rural sociology, therefore, constantly seeks methods of "doing" which will provide for the maximum amount of participation by students—the need of the learner, not that of the teacher, being the chief criterion in selection of procedures.

The committee offers comments on several methods and techniques to make for more effective teaching and learning, as follows (in alphabetical rather than priority listing):

1. *Acquaintance with students.*—Teaching will be facilitated if the members of a class become acquainted with each other,

and if the instructor becomes acquainted with each student.

2. *Audio-visual aids.*—Maps, charts, graphs, blackboard drawing, slides, movies, long-playing records—all are useful at the right times and places. They help to introduce concrete materials.

3. *Autobiographical papers.*—Every student can analyze his own experience, wherever he may come from, and the autobiographical paper, in some courses, offers one possibility of directing his attention to concrete experience.

4. *Campus materials.*—Every student is a member of a campus community and is involved in numerous campus experiences. The alert teacher can make frequent use of concrete campus activities as occurring in a kind of laboratory context.

5. *Case materials.*—Data on particular cases of communities or groups can be presented and discussed as concrete illustrations of principles being taught, or as concrete evidence from which conceptual abstractions may be induced.

6. *Community studies.*—Retrospective reports on home communities have been widely used in introductory rural sociology courses, and experienced teachers have diverse opinions as to the effectiveness of the community study.

7. *Evaluation procedures.*—It cannot be urged too strongly that teachers should avail themselves as often as possible of student evaluations of the teaching and learning experience in each course.

8. *Field trips.*—Visits can be arranged to meetings of organizations, institutions, communities, etc. To be successful, a field trip must be an organized experience for which a great deal of planning is necessary.

9. *Lectures.*—The "old-reliable," conventional method of instruction is lecturing. Although sometimes discredited by its modern critics, lecturing remains the most readily available and the basic technique of college instruction. Other techniques supplement, but do not replace the expository lecture. Certainly students learn more from good lectures than from badly organized field trips or wastefully planned laboratories.

10. *Participation in surveys.*—Planning, interviewing, tabulating, and interpreting survey data are useful learning experiences for students in advanced courses.

11. *Responsibility.*—It is generally felt that senior teachers of maturity and experience should teach the introductory courses.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON HISTORICAL  
DOCUMENTS OF THE RURAL SOCIOLOGICAL  
SOCIETY

In accordance with action taken at the Stillwater meeting in 1953, Nathan L. Whetten, president, appointed a special committee of three members to investigate the possibilities of selecting a satisfactory repository for the historical records and other memorabilia of the Rural Sociological Society, and to report with recommendations.

The committee early agreed upon certain principles to be followed in searching for a suitable repository. These were: (1) that these historical materials should be placed in a university library, preferably that of a major university; (2) that preference should be given to a midwestern institution, since it is there that rural sociology has had its beginning and also its greatest development; (3) that preference should be given to an institution where there is an established department of rural sociology, or at least where rural sociology has achieved such status that it is not likely to be abolished as an academic unit; and (4) that preference also be given to an institution where the library has a definite policy for archives with a trained archivist in charge.

Acting upon the basis of these criteria, the committee composed a list of seven universities, each regarded as a possible choice for the repository; and a letter was directed to the rural sociologists of each institution requesting them to investigate and report the advantages and disadvantages of locating the collection at their institution, and also the attitude of the librarian, of themselves, and of any other interested parties.

Two of the seven universities did not answer this inquiry. Two others gave unsatisfactory or negative answers, and a fifth, with no separate department of rural sociology, laid no special claim. That left two possibilities, Kentucky and Missouri, both interested and qualified. After due consideration of the merits of these two institutions, the committee voted unanimously to recommend to the Rural Sociological Society that the Archives of the Society be placed in the library of the University of Missouri, Columbia, Missouri.

The main library of the University of Missouri has long maintained a policy for archives and has a trained archivist in charge. It houses many collections, including the huge Mississippi Valley Historical Collection. The library is interested in our collection, and the attitude toward

handling it is generous. They will sort, label, catalog, and file our materials; make no charge for typing short pieces upon request; and reproduce manuscripts by microfilm at cost.

The library prefers to enter upon an agreement with all donors of historical collections. This agreement can be worded to suit the donor, and can be made for a stated length of time or for an indefinite period. Two sample agreements have been placed in the files of the secretary-treasurer of the Society. In case the Rural Sociological Society accepts this report with its recommendations, the desired policy with respect to agreement with the library can then be determined.

Respectfully submitted,

LOWRY NELSON

HOWARD W. BEERS

CHARLES E. LIVELY (chairman)

REPORT OF THE CENSUS COMMITTEE

The report of your Census Committee takes the form of a very brief announcement—namely, that there will be a 1954 Census of Agriculture.

Recently Margaret J. Hagood of this committee talked to Ray Hurley, chief, Agricultural Division, Bureau of the Census, about the plans for the forthcoming Census of Agriculture. It appears now that the operations for the 1954 Census of Agriculture are to be similar in scope and method to those of the 1950 census. Two new items have been added to Section XII, Facilities and Equipment, on television sets and home freezers. Farm labor and wage items are similar to those carried in 1950, except that the work week for which the labor is reported is specified. For those states in which the enumeration begins sometime in the month of October, the labor items are to be reported for the week of September 26 through October 2. In those states in which the enumeration begins in November, it is planned to have the labor question relate to the last week in October. Mrs. Hagood stated in her letter to me, "Since this is the first time a census of agriculture has been taken in the fall, we are looking forward to use of the employment and wage data for a week of fairly high activity in the fall harvest."

According to Hurley, the tabulations planned are quite similar to those made of the data from the 1950 census. Totals will be published for counties, but cross-classifications will not be available at lower than the economic area level. As in 1950, some of the sections are to be obtained only on a 20-per-cent sample. Mrs. Hagood stated,



"I believe the sections to be carried only on the sample are Sections VIII-XII and possibly Section XIII."

Respectfully submitted,

SELZ C. MAYO (chairman)

#### REPORT OF THE CLASSES OF MEMBERSHIP COMMITTEE

*Assignment.*—At the 1953 annual meeting, the Executive Committee of the Society was instructed to appoint a committee "to consider and report on the desirability of establishing classes of membership in the Rural Sociological Society." The original motion offered was limited to a consideration of life membership, but an amendment broadened the committee's scope of activities. The committee has interpreted its assignment as being to report the results of its consideration as a basis for study by members of the Society rather than to propose amendments to be voted on at this meeting. The earliest possible time of action on any changes in classes of membership would be at the 1955 annual meeting.

*Present classes of membership.*—Society bylaws now provide for only two classes of membership: (1) active and (2) student. Differential eligibility for student membership is not prescribed in the bylaws except for the phrase "students of educational institutions." Both classes have equal rights and privileges, including voting and holding of office, since no restrictions are specified in the bylaws. The only apparent difference in the two categories is in the amount of dues paid, \$5.00 per annum for active members and \$2.75 for student members.

In practice, the Society recognizes a "joint-pair of persons" membership class and a "contributing" membership, both of which are treated as active members. The membership application form currently in use carries the word "professional" after "active." The Society has also conferred an "honorary life" membership in at least one instance.

As an example of contrast with respect to number of classes, eligibility requirements, and specifications as to rights and privileges, we have the American Sociological Society which presently has seven classes of members: active, associate, joint, student, life, honorary, and emeritus. (The specifications for these classes are given in the June, 1951, *American Sociological Review*, pp. 387-388.)

*Need for emeritus membership.*—The major class of membership problem which

emerged from the committee's consideration relates to the membership status of persons upon retirement. In at least some instances, persons—some of whom were charter members—have felt it necessary to drop their membership in the Society as a part of the adjustment to reduced income after retirement. Others have indicated such action will be necessary when they retire. Does the Society want to take some action to encourage retired members to retain contact with the profession?

A majority of the committee favors the establishment of an "emeritus member" class. This membership would apply only to persons retired by their institutions. Other qualifications suggested for this class vary widely and need discussion in order to clarify what action should be recommended. They include: (1) a minimum length of continuous membership in the Society (or, prior to 1938, in the Rural Sociology Section of the American Sociological Society), ranging from twenty-five years down to five years prior to retirement; (2) professional experience ranging from holding the rank of assistant professor or above, or the equivalent, for a period of not less than twenty-five years in colleges, research foundations, or governmental bureaus down to no professional experience requirement; (3) a minimum age ranging from sixty to whenever retirement occurs; (4) dues ranging from no dues to an amount just sufficient to pay for the journal subscription; and (5) rights ranging from full rights of voting, holding office, and serving on committees to no rights except for receiving the journal.

For purposes of discussion, a proposed amendment to the bylaws might read as follows:

Any active member of the Society, when retired by his institution, may apply to become an emeritus member of the Society, provided that he has paid dues to the Society continuously for the past fifteen years. Emeritus members pay the same dues as student members and have all the rights and privileges of active membership.

*Clarification of student membership.*—A majority of the committee is of the opinion that student membership should be more precisely defined by a bylaw such as the following:

Registered undergraduate and graduate students in residence at educational institutions who have not completed all requirements for the Ph.D. degree and who are sponsored by an active member of the Society may be admitted as student members of the society. Student



membership confers all the rights and privileges of active membership. Dues would be as at present.

**Legalizing joint membership.**—Joint membership should be provided for in the by-laws, if the arrangement is to be continued, by such provision as the following:

Joint active membership may be taken out by a husband and wife upon payment of annual dues of \$6.50. Both persons shall have all the rights and privileges of membership in the Society, provided that they shall together be entitled to one subscription to the Society's official publication.

**Legalizing contributing membership.**—If the contributing membership is to be used, it should be provided for in the bylaws by such provision as the following:

A contributing membership may be taken out by any person otherwise eligible for active membership upon payment annually of \$7.00 or more. Such persons shall have the rights and privileges of an active member.

This simply states present practice.

**Negative recommendations.**—This committee is unanimously opposed to a life membership class in the society. The majority of the committee is opposed to establishing classes of membership based upon academic or professional credentials.

Respectfully submitted,

SAMUEL W. BLIZZARD  
O. D. DUNCAN  
CHARLES R. HOFFER  
CHARLES E. LIVELY  
WALTER C. MCKAIN, JR.  
OLAF F. LARSON (chairman)

REPORT OF THE JOINT COMMITTEE OF THE  
RURAL SOCIOLOGICAL SOCIETY AND DEPARTMENT OF RURAL EDUCATION, NATIONAL  
EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

Since the annual meeting of the Rural Sociological Society last year, the committee held a meeting at Atlantic City, February 14, 1954. At this meeting, J. F. Thaden, of Michigan State College and co-chairman of the committee, gave a paper on the topic "Social and Economic Forces Affecting the Community." He was also a member of the panel at a joint meeting of the Department of Rural Education and the National School Public Relations Association, on "School-Community Relations."

The Department of Rural Education mimeographed fifty copies of the committee's 32-page report, entitled "Organizing Rural Community School Districts." In February, this report was sent to people who are actively engaged in school-district

reorganization. Several comments for revision have been received. The same procedure was pursued with respect to a 32-page case study, entitled "Community School District and Community School of Dundee, Michigan."

In recent months, detailed case studies have been made in Martinsville, Indiana; Celina, Ohio; Springville, New York; and Hector and Le Sueur, Minnesota. Some work has been done on the story of Castlewood, South Dakota. The story of Springville, New York, has been mimeographed, and copies have been distributed to key people for review. Communities in several other states have been tentatively selected, and plans will be made to secure case studies of their community school districts.

Respectfully submitted,

DOUGLAS CHITTICK (secretary)

REPORT OF THE AUDITING COMMITTEE

The Auditing Committee has examined the records of Samuel W. Blizzard, treasurer of the Rural Sociological Society, and found them to be correct and in order. The committee commends him for the excellent records kept of the financial transactions of the Society.

Respectfully submitted,

LELAND B. TATE  
HOWARD M. SAUER  
RANDALL C. HILL (chairman)

REPORT OF THE RESOLUTIONS COMMITTEE

Be it resolved, That the Rural Sociological Society express sincere appreciation to the University of Illinois for the use of its many excellent facilities and to the members of its staff who contributed so much to the success of the 1954 annual meeting of this Society.

We, the members of the Rural Sociological Society, pause to pay tribute to the following members of our organization who have died since the last annual meeting:

Walter R. Harrison, Southern University, Baton Rouge, Louisiana.  
Wendell F. Kumlien, South Dakota State College, Brookings, South Dakota.  
Thomas A. Tripp, General Council of the Congregational Christian Churches, New York, New York.

These men worked long and diligently in the interest of rural sociology, and we stand in tribute to their memory.

Respectfully submitted,

W. A. ANDERSON  
ARTHUR F. WILEDEN  
RAY E. WAKELEY (chairman)

TREASURER'S REPORT  
RURAL SOCIOLOGICAL SOCIETY  
August 10, 1954

Beginning balance .....\$2,394.88

RECEIPTS

Membership dues .....	2,583.86
Back issues of <i>Rural Sociology</i> for members .....	10.00
Sale of back issues of <i>Rural Sociology</i> (A. Lee Coleman) .....	433.52
Miscellaneous, mimeographing furnished (A. Lee Coleman) .....	4.00
Overpayments (Afif I. Tannous) .....	3.00
<b>Total Receipts .....</b>	<b>\$5,429.26</b>

EXPENDITURES

Printing 1953 annual meeting programs (Hinkel Printing Company) ..	37.23
1953 Resolutions Committee (E. L. Kirkpatrick) .....	8.00
3,000 printed stamped envelopes (Postmaster, New York, N. Y.) .....	111.62
(Clayton Stanford) .....	4.00
300 stamped envelopes (Shirley Downing) .....	10.98
Postage (Union Theological Seminary) .....	.99
2,000 letterheads and 2,000 membership cards (Commercial Printing Company) .....	38.25
1,000 unprinted envelopes (Grabel and Grabel) .....	4.50
Reprints, 1953 Membership List (A. Lee Coleman) .....	14.00
Rubber stamp (Shirley Downing) .....	1.00
Mimeographing (Union Theological Seminary) .....	48.20
Membership Committee (John C. Belcher) .....	15.00
Nominating Committee, telephone calls (Union Theological Seminary) ..	7.07
Membership, International Sociological Association (T. Bottomore) ...	20.00
1953 back issues (A. Lee Coleman) .....	200.00
1953 subscriptions, <i>Rural Sociology</i> (A. Lee Coleman) .....	64.50
1954 subscriptions, <i>Rural Sociology</i> (A. Lee Coleman) .....	1,799.00
Back issues of <i>Rural Sociology</i> for members (A. Lee Coleman) .....	8.00
Refunds (Norman W. Painter, \$2.00; Afif I. Tannous, \$3.00) .....	5.00
<b>Total Expenditures .....</b>	<b>\$2,397.34</b>
Bank balance, August 10, 1954 .....	\$3,034.92
Less check outstanding .....	3.00
<b>Balance, August 10, 1954 .....</b>	<b>\$3,031.92</b>

Respectfully submitted,

SAMUEL W. BLIZZARD

## COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

**University of Alabama.** *The Talladega Story: A Study in Community Process*, by Solon Kimball and Marion Pearsall, has been published by the University of Alabama Press. Kimball is now a member of the faculty of Teachers College, Columbia University.

**Florida State University.** Donald G. Merriam has joined the staff of the Division of Marriage and Family Living, as assistant professor. He has recently been associated with the Marriage Council, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

Joseph Golden, who was a member of the staff of the School of Social Welfare, 1950-54, has accepted a position at the Atlanta School of Social Work, where he will have major responsibility for the direction of student research.

Ira H. Holland, who was a member of the faculty of the School of Social Welfare, 1952-54, has accepted a position at Indiana Central College as dean and registrar.

The U. S. Public Health Service has made a grant to the School of Social Welfare for the development of a training program in psychiatric social work. Mrs. Virginia Williamson has joined the staff to participate in the development of the program.

During 1953-54, George H. Finck and John R. Millar, Jr., graduate students in the Division of Marriage and Family Living of the School of Social Welfare, received their doctorates in the interdivisional program in Marriage and Family Life Education. Finck has accepted a position as director of the Mental Hygiene Clinic at Tampa, Florida, while Millar has accepted a position at Greensboro College, Greensboro, North Carolina.

Robert I. Gilbert, who has completed the requirements for the doctorate, with the exception of the dissertation, will be on the staff of the Mississippi College for Women, Columbus, Mississippi, during 1954-55.

Travis Northcutt, Irvin Doress, Louis E. Nelson, George Ivey, and Joseph T. Raffa have been appointed graduate assistants in the Division of Marriage and Family Living for 1954-55.

**Iowa State College.** Paul J. Jehlik and Ray E. Wakeley have completed the preparation of a manuscript on "Population Change and Migration in the North Central States, 1940-50" for the North Central Regional Project on Population Dynamics. Jehlik and Wakeley are now preparing an Iowa research bulletin on "Change in Iowa Population Characteristics and Related Factors, 1940-50."

George M. Beal, associate professor, has recently published his doctoral thesis under the title, *The Roots of Participation in Farmer Cooperatives*.

The Sociology Department is cooperating in an interdisciplinary research project on the Farm Family Unit approach of the Agricultural Extension Service.

Frank M. DePaul has been appointed an instructor to teach Introductory Sociology and Social Problems. Janet Payer, instructor in sociology, is teaching Introductory Sociology. Everett M. Rogers has been appointed research assistant.

Five Ph.D. degrees have been granted in rural sociology during the past year. The candidates and their present locations are: Kenneth L. Cannon, University of Nebraska; Carl E. Ortmeier, University of Michigan; Robert M. Dimit, South Dakota State College; Joe M. Bohlen, Iowa State College; and Albert J. Shafter, Woodward State Hospital.

**University of Kentucky.** Howard W. Beers, head of the Departments of Sociology and Rural Sociology, has been promoted to the rank of distinguished professor, highest academic rank in the university. Irwin T. Sanders, who also holds this rank, has been elected vice-president of the Rural Sociological Society. He is president-elect of the Southern Sociological Society.

C. Arnold Anderson, associate professor of sociology, is on sabbatic leave and at the University of Lund, Sweden, for the year. He and his wife, Mary Jean Bowman, presented a paper at the recent World Congress on Population, in Rome.

Harry Best, emeritus professor of sociology, has been awarded the 1954 Migel Medal for Outstanding Service to the Blind for the year 1954. The presentation was made by Helen Keller at the headquarters of the American Foundation for the Blind in New York City, October 21. The citation was "for his unselfish and exhaustive labor to produce the outstanding history of work for the blind, *Blindness and the Blind in the United States*, published in 1934."

James S. Brown, associate professor of rural sociology, is spending his sabbatic year as a Fulbright Research Scholar in Bonn, Germany.

Ralph J. Ramsey, field agent in rural sociology, is on sabbatic and is studying at the University of Chicago on an Adult Education Fund fellowship.

James W. Hughes, instructor in sociology, has been appointed director of corrections in the Kentucky State Department of Welfare.

John R. Christiansen, who is a candidate for the Ph.D. in rural sociology at the University of Wisconsin, joined the staff on October 1, as assistant rural sociologist.

Newly appointed half-time instructors in sociology are Liliyalce Akers and Leonard Griswold. James N. Young has been appointed part-time instructor in rural sociology; he continues to serve as part-time assistant in the rural sociology research program. Paul D. Richardson is part-time field agent in rural sociology and part-time assistant in research. Charyl Risner and Emily Feltman are assistants under the Kellogg Foundation Research Project in Educational Administration. Donald Hochstrasser is technical assistant in rural sociology. John S. Anthracopoulos, of Athens, Greece, holds a graduate scholarship from the university's Haggin Fund.

Jerome H. Laulicht, recently awarded the F. D. in sociology, is teaching at Morris Harvey College, Charleston, West Virginia. Herbert Aurbach and Gordon Lewis, candidates for the Ph.D., have joined the staffs of Mississippi State College and Rollins College, respectively. Edwin Bell Hanna has completed requirements for the M.S. degree and returned to a mission post in Lebanon.

On September 13, the second annual "Community School-for-a-Day" was held at the university. About 150 citizens and community leaders attended from throughout the state. H. Clay Tate, editor of the *Bloomington Daily Pantagraph*, was the convocation speaker. Classes were given on the following subjects: "How to Organize for Community Development," "How to Approach the Problem of School Integration," "How to Control Delinquency," "How to Deal with Local Conflict," "How to Get Basic Facts about Your Community," "How to Develop Local Leadership," "How to Report Community Activities," and "How to Improve City Government." Sociologists on the staff were Howard W. Beers, director, Irwin T. Sanders, A. Lee Coleman, James W. Hughes, Willis A. Sutton, Jr., Robert E. Galloway, C. Paul Marsh, and James W. Gladden.

**Louisiana State University.** Homer L. Hitt, professor and head of the Departments of Sociology and Rural Sociology, has been appointed associate dean of the Graduate School. He will retain his present positions with the exception of his clinical professorship in the School of Medicine, but will curtail his teaching activities.

Vernon J. Parenton has been promoted from associate professor to professor of sociology. He will continue part-time re-

search duties in the Institute of Population Research.

Three new staff members have been added to the Department of Sociology this year. George K. Floro, instructor, B.E. (University of Toledo), M.A. (Northwestern), Ph.D. (University of Chicago), formerly served in the Bureau of Government Research at the University of Kansas. His major interests are industrial sociology and city government. Walfred J. Jokinen, instructor, B.S. (University of Minnesota), M.A. (Louisiana State University), was formerly a research assistant in the Department of Rural Sociology. John A. London, research assistant in the Institute of Population Research, B.A. (University of Alabama), M.A. (University of Alabama), was also formerly a research assistant in the Department of Rural Sociology.

Paul H. Price served as editor for the 1954 *Proceedings of the Southwestern Sociological Society*. Marion B. Smith is on a sabbatical leave for the fall semester of the academic year 1954-55 to complete the writing of a new social science text to be entitled *Man in Society: An Introduction to Social Science*. Alvin L. Bertrand has been elected to the state board of the Louisiana Heart Association.

The three graduate students receiving Ph.D. degrees in sociology at the 1954 spring commencement have accepted academic appointments for next year. George A. Hillery, Jr. has accepted an assistant professorship at the University of Georgia, Atlanta Division. Clarence A. Storla, Jr. has been appointed assistant professor at Carroll College, Waukesha, Wisconsin. Perry H. Howard has accepted the position of assistant professor of sociology at Memphis State College. Robert O. Trout and Robert K. Hirzel received their Ph.D. degrees at the summer commencement. Trout is professor of sociology at Louisiana Technological Institute, Ruston, Louisiana, and Hirzel is assistant professor of sociology at Winthrop College, Rock Hill, South Carolina.

**University of Maryland.** Wayne C. Rohrer, assistant professor of sociology, offered a course on Community Organization at the Institute for Town and Country Ministers, Westminster Theological Seminary, Westminster, Maryland, July 5-23, 1954.

**University of Massachusetts.** C. Wendell King has been promoted to associate professor of sociology, and Edwin D. Driver has been promoted to assistant professor of sociology. Arthur J. Field has been appointed instructor in sociology.

The Board of Trustees has approved the Master of Arts degree program, and a specialization in correctional administration. This program includes an internship arrangement with a variety of state and private agencies.

**Michigan State College.** As a part of the Centennial Celebration at Michigan State College, the School of Home Economics is presenting a symposium on *Potentialities of Women in the Middle Years*, to be held April 18-20, 1955. Emphasis will be placed on problems and challenges evolving from the changing role of women in the middle years and on the research findings related to these changes. National leaders in the physiological, psychological, sociological, economic, and employment aspects will take part in the program. At no time has such a distinguished group of leaders considered this important problem on an interdisciplinary basis and attempted to summarize the emerging research findings.

**University of Missouri.** Charles E. Lively has received a grant from the Conservation Foundation to make a study of conservation education programs in the colleges and universities of the United States. Jack J. Preiss, who has recently finished his graduate work in sociology at Michigan State College, has been employed to work on the project.

Edward Hassinger, instructor in rural sociology, is now devoting half time to extension work through the Department of Adult Education and Extension. His extension assignment is in the area of rural health, principally work with county health councils.

Mary Bonwell, graduate student in sociology at the University of Minnesota, joined the staff as assistant, February 1, 1954. She is associated with Robert L. McNamara in a study of cultural factors affecting rural health.

Robert L. McNamara, Peter New, and Donnell Papenfort are the authors of a bulletin entitled *Rural-Urban Population Change and Migration in Missouri, 1940-50* (Missouri AES Bulletin 620).

George Blume, formerly assistant for research, has been made instructor in rural sociology and is teaching half time in the introductory course.

Herbert F. Lionberger, associate professor of rural sociology, has recently prepared several manuscripts dealing with aspects of the problem of diffusion and acceptance of scientific farm and home information. In addition to those published in recent issues of *Rural Sociology*, they in-

clude *Roads to Knowledge, the Story of Communication between Farm and College*, with Edward Hassinger as co-author, (Missouri AES Bulletin 633).

On October 11, the Department of Rural Sociology, in cooperation with the Missouri Health Council, held the second state conference for County Health Council Personnel. McNamara and Hassinger were in charge. A total of 150 persons were present.

**North Carolina State College of Agriculture and Engineering.** James W. Green, assistant professor, has been granted a leave of absence to accept a temporary appointment in Pakistan as rural sociology advisor with the Foreign Operations Administration, U. S. Department of State. Green will be on leave until August 31, 1956. During his absence, Frederick L. Bates, who received his doctor's degree in sociology at the University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, in June of this year, will serve under temporary appointment as assistant professor in the Department of Rural Sociology.

C. Horace Hamilton, head of the Department of Rural Sociology, attended the World Population Conference in Rome, Italy, August 29 to September 10.

Selz C. Mayo, associate professor, has recently completed a series of case studies of community development programs in western North Carolina.

Sheldon G. Lowry, assistant professor, has completed a manuscript on "Social and Economic Factors Related to Health and Health Services in Wake County, North Carolina."

Donald G. Hay, social science analyst, U. S. Department of Agriculture, now stationed in Raleigh, has completed a manuscript on the "Acceptance of Voluntary Health Insurance in Haywood County, North Carolina." Hay has also made a study of the factors affecting enrollment in Blue Cross and Blue Shield plans in the counties of North Carolina.

**University of North Dakota.** A Social Science Research Institute has been established "to stimulate, sponsor, and direct research in the social sciences, particularly pertaining to North Dakota and the Great Plains." The institute is governed by a director and a board representing the five social science departments: Economics, Geography, History, Political Science, and Sociology and Anthropology.

A grant has been received from a private Midwestern foundation in support of a research project entitled "Economic and Social Impacts of Oil Developments in the



Area of Williston, North Dakota." The project is in progress; a team of university staff members and several assistants worked in the field last summer.

Peter A. Munch, head of the Department of Sociology and Anthropology, has been appointed director of the newly established Social Science Research Institute. He has recently published: "Group Identification and Socio-Cultural Symbolism," *Midwest Sociologist*, Vol. XVI, No. 1 (Winter, 1954); "The Peasant Movement in Norway: A Study in Class and Culture," *British Journal of Sociology*, Vol. V, No. 1 (March, 1954); "Segregation and Assimilation of Norwegian Settlements in Wisconsin," *Norwegian-American Studies and Records*, Vol. 18 (1954).

Robert B. Campbell has been promoted to assistant professor of sociology. During the summer he was engaged in research under the auspices of the Social Science Research Institute (the Williston project).

**Russell Sage College.** Frances Ianni, Department of Sociology and Anthropology, received a summer appointment with the New York State Department of Public Works, Bureau of Highway Planning, as a research scientist. His responsibilities were to assist in the development of a research project to study problems of automobile accidents. The project is jointly sponsored by the Bureau of Highway Planning and the Department of Health. He has also been appointed by the Governor of New York to the Troy Council of the New York State Commission Against Discrimination.

**Central University of Venezuela, Caracas.** The Department of Sociology and Cultural Anthropology began its third year of operations on September 15. It has more than doubled its staff since it was established in the fall of 1952.

J. M. Cruxent, curator of the Museum of Natural Science, in Caracas, was on leave of absence from January to April, 1954, during which time he collaborated with the anthropological-archaeological expedition of ex-King Leopold of Belgium to the Belgian Congo and Panama. Cruxent also presented a paper at the Inter-American Anthropological meeting held in Sao Paulo, Brazil, in August.

Norman W. Painter read a paper before the fourth annual meeting of the Venezuelan Association for the Advancement of Science, in January. He has appeared on the program of the Social Science Section for two consecutive years; on both occasions, his papers treated demographic problems in Latin America, especially Vene-

zuela, and were published in the official journal of the association.

George W. Hill, utilizing the holidays over Holy Week, led an expedition of twenty-one staff members and advanced students into the Delta Orinoco to make a brief study of the Guaraos Indians. The primary purpose of the expedition was to give students training in the general methods and specific techniques of field research. The expedition, sponsored by the Ministry of Education, had the support of the Justice, Health, Agriculture, and Defense branches of the government. More than 4,000 feet of colored movies and several hundred transparent slides were made. The team brought back an extensive collection of artifacts commonly in use by the Guaraos. The university has made available its recently completed museum building for an anthropological-archaeological exhibition which the department is now preparing.

George W. Hill read a paper at the Conference on Frontiers at the University of Wisconsin early in August, and was one of the delegates attending the World Population Conference in Rome, Italy, August 30 to September 10. He also attended the Immigration Conference of the International Catholic Migration Committee at Breda, Holland, in September.

**Wisconsin State College.** George I. J. Dixon has joined the staff to teach courses in general sociology and rural sociology.

#### GOVERNMENT AGENCIES

**New York State Department of Health.** Walter E. Boek, assistant to the Commissioner of Health, has been reappointed research associate in the Department of Sociology and Anthropology at Cornell University and lecturer in the School of Nursing of Union University.

**New York State Youth Commission.** Jean K. Boek has been appointed director of research. The Youth Commission was set up to do research and to develop programs which would aid communities in reducing juvenile delinquency. She is also teaching in the Nursing School of Union University.

**United States Department of Agriculture.** Reorganization of the department in late 1953 transferred the former Division of Farm Population and Rural Life to the Agricultural Marketing Service. A new organizational nomenclature was introduced, so that it is now the Farm Population and Rural Life Branch in the Division of Agricultural Economics.

Within the branch, the organizational

structure was virtually unaltered. The branch has the same four sections it had before reorganization—Farm Population, Farm Labor, Rural Levels and Standards of Living, and Rural Organization—in addition to a small professional field staff. The responsibilities assigned to the branch and each of its sections are the same in the new organization chart as in the old. In the field of farm labor, certain new types of studies that had been financed since the Korean emergency by defense funds were transferred to the Farming Efficiency Section of the Production Economics Research Branch of the Agricultural Research Service. The work transferred to the Agricultural Research Service includes local area studies of aspects of farm labor closely related to farm management problems. None of the regular responsibilities in the field of farm labor were removed from the Farm Population and Rural Life Branch.

The branch is one of three in the Division of Agricultural Economics, which also includes the Statistical and Historical Research Branch and the Farm Income Branch. Frederick V. Waugh is director of the division.

The Farm Population and Rural Life Branch will join the Department of Sociology, University of Maryland, as hosts to the next annual meeting of the Rural Sociological Society to be held in August, 1955.

#### CONFERENCES AND ASSOCIATIONS

**Eastern Sociological Society.** The twenty-fifth annual meeting will be held in New York City on April 2 and 3, 1955. Papers concerned with research, methodology, theory, or statistics may be submitted. They should be limited to fifteen minutes of oral presentation. Those papers not accepted for one of the section meetings but of apparent professional interest will be listed by author and title on the program. Completed papers, or a preliminary draft of them, should be submitted by January 15 to Paul F. Cressey, Wheaton College, Norton, Massachusetts.

**International Sociological Association (ISA).** The third World Congress of Sociology will be organized by the association, under the auspices of UNESCO, in Amsterdam, Netherlands, August 22-29, 1956.

The theme of the congress will be "Problems of Social Change in the 20th Century." The principal sections in the provisional program are: an introductory symposium on social change; changes in economic structure, industrial organization, and

property relations; changes in class structure; changes in family; changes in education, with special reference to social mobility; and the interrelations of changes in different areas of society.

Sociologists in all countries are cordially invited to take part in this congress. They are asked to get in touch with the ISA secretariat, Skepper House, 13 Endsleigh Street, London, W. C. 1, for details of registration and other information.

**International Union of Family Organizations (IUFO).** An International Conference on the Family was held at Stuttgart, Germany, from September 11 to 19, 1954. The subjects studied by the conference were: "Rural Families in Modern Society" and "Family Action in the Working Class." The problems of rural families were for the first time studied by an international conference, and the following conclusions were reached:

1. The consideration of the problems proper to rural life, which are too often ignored, implies the undertaking of inquiries, research, and experiments, and these should receive every encouragement.

2. The decentralization of means of production and, in particular, the extension of industry in rural areas should not be permitted to disrupt family life, but should rather reinforce it.

3. Rural equipment is urgently needed, especially household equipment and the modernization of homes.

4. The duty of family organizations towards rural populations is to study and make known the needs of the families. They should also organize mutual aid among these families as well as educational and recreational services suitable for the encouragement of family responsibility.

5. In the field of social welfare, agricultural wage-earners should be afforded the same measures of protection as are enjoyed by other wage-earners, and, to this end, the application of such measures to farmers and independent rural workers should be studied. This study should include not only family allowances, but also insurance against illness and accident, as well as old-age and life insurance.

With respect to family action among the working class, the conference reached the following conclusions:

1. The normal development of the home is rendered very difficult for many working-class families by reason of their justifiable concern for the enjoyment of a standard of living to which modern technical progress entitles them, materially, as

well as morally and culturally. In general, this class has as yet only a confused idea of what constitutes specific family action. If families of this class are to recognize the necessity of family action, they must first be shown concrete accomplishment and services to be rendered the individual family, the group living in the same block, and the neighborhood.

2. The women must be given every opportunity to participate in this family action, not only at the level of concrete activities, but also in the preparation of the action and its orientation.

3. In order to give maximum encouragement to the acceptance of responsibility by working-class families, it is important that they be grouped in associations recruited solely from their own class or regrouped in specialized teams within a more general organization.

4. Among the working class, union action and family action are part of the same effort, and are to be considered in a single perspective.

At the close of the conference, the IUFO held its General Assembly, which elected the General Council. Xavier Ryckmans, president of the Belgian National Committee of Family Organizations, was elected president. Jean Delaporte, 28, Place Saint-Georges, Paris IX<sup>e</sup>, France, was re-elected secretary-general. Vice-presidencies were conferred on the following countries: Germany, Argentina, Spain, Italy, Finland, France, and Great Britain.

#### FELLOWSHIPS, GRANTS, AND AWARDS

**University of Kentucky Press Fellowship.** A fellowship awarding \$5,000 to the writer who displays the most insight and scholarship in projecting a book-length manuscript analyzing some significant aspect of the culture of Kentucky or its region has been established. When completed, the book will be published by the press. The purpose of

the award is to attract the attention of outstanding scholars to the opportunities for interpretive writing about Kentucky.

The successful candidate will be selected on the basis of his understanding of the whole culture of the region, the freshness and originality of his idea and his development of it, and his literary style and ability. Applicants will be asked to submit a twenty-five page essay on their subject; from this and from interviews, the committee will choose the winner. Up to \$4,000 will be paid as a stipend while the candidate is completing his manuscript. The remainder of the \$5,000 will be paid upon submission of the book to the press in an acceptable, publishable form.

The fellowship has been made possible by the generosity of Mrs. Margaret Voorhies Haggin of New York City, who has endowed the University of Kentucky with a trust fund to be used for the encouragement of advanced study and the publication of the results of research.

The Press Fellowship Committee includes Thomas D. Clark, head of the History Department of the University of Kentucky, chairman; Mrs. Mary Caperton Bingham, literary editor of the *Louisville Courier-Journal*; Philip Davidson, president of the University of Louisville; Louis Smith, dean of Berea College; A. L. Crabb, author and member of the faculty of George Peabody College for Teachers; Herman Spivey, dean of the Graduate School of the University of Kentucky; William S. Webb, distinguished professor of physics at the University of Kentucky; and Bruce F. Denbo, director of the University of Kentucky Press.

Deadline for application for the University of Kentucky Press Fellowship will be April 1, 1955. Further information may be obtained by writing the University of Kentucky Press, Lexington, Kentucky.

# RURAL SOCIOLOGICAL SOCIETY MEMBERSHIP, 1954

(To October 20, 1954)

Total: 578

## United States (517)

### ALABAMA (7)

Alexander, Lula E.  
Andrews, Henry L.  
Caldwell, Morris G.  
Edwards, Vinson A.  
Gomillion, Charles G.  
Jones, Lewis W.  
Neal, Ernest E.

Daniel Payne College  
Box 797  
Box 636  
Box 925  
Box 31  
Rural Life Council  
Box 67

Birmingham 6  
University  
University  
Tuskegee Institute  
Tuskegee Institute  
Tuskegee Institute  
Tuskegee Institute

### ARKANSAS (3)

Charlton, J. L.  
Folkman, William S.  
Hudson, Gerald T.

University of Arkansas  
University of Arkansas  
University of Arkansas

Fayetteville  
Fayetteville  
Fayetteville

### CALIFORNIA (13)

Andersen, Martin P.  
Brekke, Arnold  
Carter, Gene W.  
\*Conline, Donald F.  
Cramer, Raymond L.  
Green, James W.  
\*Kelley, Patricia M.  
McMillan, Robert T.

878 S. Bundy Drive  
University of California  
1708 Scenic Avenue  
1729 Camden Avenue  
5981 Tam O'Shanter Lane  
APO 74, Box K, c/o Postmaster  
555 Hermosa Way  
MSA--STEM  
APO 928, c/o Postmaster  
USOM  
APO 928, c/o Postmaster  
12425 Wagner Street  
1651 Victoria Avenue  
University of California  
350 North Alexandria

Los Angeles 49  
Davis  
Berkeley 9  
Los Angeles 25  
Fresno  
San Francisco  
Menlo Park  
  
San Francisco  
  
San Francisco  
Venice  
Los Angeles 19  
Berkeley 4  
Los Angeles 4

Motheral, Joseph R.

\*Murray, Channing  
\*Scott, Woodrow W.  
Taylor, Paul S.  
Wilson, James B.

### COLORADO (4)

Clark, Catherine R.  
Hodgson, James G.  
Jamison, William G.  
Stotts, Herbert E.

Colorado A. and M. College  
Box 275  
1524 North Street  
Bluff School of Theology

Fort Collins  
Fort Collins  
Boulder  
Denver 10

### CONNECTICUT (6)

Burnight, Robert G.  
Fabyan, Warren W.  
McKain, Walter C.  
\*Ofslager, Norman W.  
\*Trask, Owen S.  
Whetten, Nathan L.

University of Connecticut  
Teachers College of Connecticut  
University of Connecticut  
University of Connecticut  
Ripley Hill Road  
Dog Lane

Storrs  
New Britain  
Storrs  
Storrs  
Coventry  
Storrs

### DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA (19)

Beale, Calvin L.  
Beran, D. L.  
  
Bowles, Gladys K.  
Bruce, William F.  
Chaves, Fernando  
Clark, Lois M.  
Cooper, Shirley  
Dawson, Howard A.  
Hagood, Margaret Jarman  
Hartman, Vladimir  
Johnston, Helen L.  
Manny, Elsie  
Matthews, M. Taylor

629 Fourteenth Street, N.E.  
USOM to Egypt  
c/o State Dept. Mail Room  
317 Tenth Street, N.E.  
7711 Old Chester Road  
Pan American Union  
1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W.  
1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W.  
1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W.  
Agricultural Marketing Service  
1751 N Street, N.W.  
1916 Sunderland Place, N.W.  
1733 Taylor Street, N.W.  
Baghdad USOM, U. S. Department  
of State

Washington 2  
  
Washington 25  
Washington  
Washington 14  
Washington 6  
Washington 6  
Washington 6  
Washington 6  
Washington 25  
Washington 6  
Washington 6  
Washington 11  
  
Washington 25

\*Student membership.

Nichols, Ralph R.  
Niederfrank, E. J.  
Rose, John Kerr  
Shryock, Henry, Jr.  
Wells, Oris V.  
White, Helen R.

Agricultural Marketing Service  
Extension Service, USDA  
Suite 601, 1311 G Street, N.W.  
3420 Fairhill Drive  
Agricultural Marketing Service  
c/o M. G. White  
Foreign Geology Branch

Washington 25  
Washington 25  
Washington  
Washington 23  
Washington 25  
Washington 25

Alleger, Daniel E.  
Fals Borda, Orlando  
\*Gibbs, U. F.  
\*Greene, A. L.  
Leap, William L.  
\*Malool, Louis J.  
\*Mitchell, William G.  
Moore, Coyle E.  
Roberts, Charles D.  
\*Sardo, Joseph  
\*Saunders, John Van Dyke  
\*Schulman, Sam  
Smith, T. Lynn  
\*Taylor, Carlis A.  
Verner, Coolie

### FLORIDA (15)

University of Florida  
University of Florida  
Madison Training School  
Box 961  
Florida State University  
Box 2741 University Station  
Box 501, Route 5  
Florida State University  
2137 Liberty Street  
Box 2553, University Station  
Box 2654, University Station  
Box 2612, University Station  
University of Florida  
1407 N.W. Fourth Street  
Florida State University

Gainesville  
Gainesville  
Madison  
Lake City  
Tallahassee  
Gainesville  
Gainesville  
Tallahassee  
Jacksonville  
Gainesville  
Gainesville  
Gainesville  
Gainesville  
Tallahassee

Brewer, Earl  
Carr, James M.  
\*Hillery, George A., Jr.  
Hopkins, W. E.  
Johnson, Irene  
Knowlton, Clark S.  
Payne, Raymond

### GEORGIA (7)

Emory University  
905 Henry Grady Building  
University of Georgia  
University of Georgia  
Box 152, Fort Valley State College  
Box 344, Georgia Teachers College  
University of Georgia

Emory University  
Atlanta  
Atlanta 3  
Atlanta 3  
College Station  
Collegeboro  
Athens

Bailey, D. L.  
Bauder, Ward W.  
Bruyn, Severyn T.  
Cummins, Ralph  
Duncan, Otis Dudley  
Folse, Clinton L.  
Hoxsie, Wayne W.  
\*James, J. M.  
\*Johnson, Donald E.  
Kauffman, J. Howard  
Long, Howard R.  
Muelier, E. W.  
Myers, Richard A.  
Obenhaus, Victor  
Parr, F. O.  
Ratcliffe, S. C.  
Regnier, Earl H.  
Schersten, A. F.  
Schroeder, W. Widick  
Schweitzer, Harvey J., Jr.  
Shideler, Ernest H.  
Smith, Rockwell C.  
Tudor, William J.

### ILLINOIS (23)

Western Illinois State College  
University of Illinois  
Illinois College  
806 South Fifth Street  
1126 East 59th Street  
University of Illinois  
329 South 19th Street  
1526 East 84th Street  
University of Illinois  
1235 E. 58th Street  
Southern Illinois University  
327 South LaSalle Street  
72 West Washington Street  
5737 University Avenue  
Olivet Nazarene College  
Illinois Wesleyan University  
University of Illinois  
Augustana College  
5003 Blackstone  
.....  
103 West Florida Avenue  
Garrett Biblical Institute  
507 South Hays

Macomb  
Urbana  
Jacksonville  
Champaign  
Chicago 37  
Urbana  
Mt. Vernon  
Chicago  
Urbana  
Chicago 37  
Carbondale  
Chicago 4  
Chicago 2  
Chicago 37  
Kankakee  
Bloomington  
Urbana  
Rock Island  
Chicago 15  
Maita  
Urbana  
Evanston  
Carbondale

Christensen, Harold T.  
Francis, E. K.  
Greene, Shirley E.  
Looney, J. Edwin  
Rector, Franklin E.  
Smith, Harold E.  
Todd, Robert M.

### INDIANA (7)

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.....  
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Butler University  
Purdue University  
1137 Plum Street

West Lafayette  
Notre Dame  
Meron  
Lafayette  
Indianapolis 7  
Lafayette  
Noblesville

### IOWA (24)

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Becker, Edwin L.  
\*Boehnke, George

Iowa State College  
Bible College, Drake University  
612 Stanton Avenue

Ames  
Des Moines 11  
Ames

\*Student membership.  
#Joint membership.



## MEMBERSHIP LIST, 1954

441

Bohlen, Joe M.  
 \*Chandler, Charles S.  
 #Dreier, William H.  
 #Ghormley, Hugh W., Sr.  
 #Ghormley, Mary  
 Graff, E. F.  
 Hradecky, W. C.  
 Jehlik, Paul J.  
 Kenkel, William F.  
 Koontz, Donald H.  
 Ligutti, L. G.  
 \*McComas, Ruth Elaine  
 McGuire, Arlie Estus  
 Murphy, Donald R.  
 \*Robinson, Robert P.  
 Rohwer, Robert A.  
 Schnucker, Calvin  
 #Scott, Donald  
 Stacy, W. H.  
 Wakeley, Ray E.  
 \*Young, Lloyd

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 Woodward State Hospital  
 Iowa State Teachers College  
 Box 136  
 Box 136  
 525 Ash Street  
 St. Wenceslaus Church, Duncan  
 1218 Ridgewood  
 1228 Harding  
 702 West Ashland  
 3801 Grand Avenue  
 170 Campus Avenue  
 University of Dubuque  
 1912 Grand  
 .....  
 Route 1  
 University of Dubuque  
 Iowa State Teachers College  
 Iowa State College  
 2144 Sunset Drive  
 Iowa State College

Ames  
 Woodward  
 Cedar Falls  
 Union  
 Union  
 Ames  
 Britt  
 Ames  
 Ames  
 Indianola  
 Des Moines 12  
 Ames  
 Dubuque  
 Des Moines 5  
 Collins  
 Paullina  
 Dubuque  
 Cedar Falls  
 Ames  
 Ames  
 Ames

## KANSAS (9)

Copp, James H.  
 \*Ekwebelem, Zak O. N.  
 Gerling, Amy G.  
 Hill, Randall C.  
 King, Hattung  
 \*Langanecker, Cara  
 Schroll, Sister Agnes  
 \*Wals, Orry C.  
 Wolters, Father Gilbert

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 University of Wichita  
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 Welfare Office  
 Mt. St. Scholastica College  
 1741 Vermont Street  
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Manhattan  
 Manhattan  
 Wichita  
 Manhattan  
 Salina  
 Abilene  
 Atchison  
 Lawrence  
 Atchison

## KENTUCKY (18)

Anderson, C. Arnold  
 Beers, Howard W.  
 Brown, James S.  
 Brown, Ralph G.  
 \*Christiansen, John R.  
 Coleman, A. Lee  
 Galloway, Robert E.  
 \*Griswold, L. Earl  
 Hanna, C. Morton  
 Hogan, William E.  
 Marsh, C. Paul  
 Quarles, Mary Ann  
 Ramsey, Ralph J.  
 \*Richardson, Paul D.  
 Sanders, Irwin T.  
 Scudder, Richard F.  
 Sutton, Willis A., Jr.  
 \*Young, James N.

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 University of Kentucky  
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 University of Kentucky  
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 University of Kentucky  
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 University of Kentucky  
 University of Kentucky  
 University of Kentucky  
 Georgetown College  
 University of Kentucky  
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L.ington  
 Lexington  
 Lexington  
 Lexington  
 Salersville  
 Lexington  
 Lexington  
 Lexington  
 Lexington  
 Louisville 2  
 Louisville 5  
 Lexington  
 Berea  
 Lexington  
 Lexington  
 Lexington  
 Lexington  
 Georgetown  
 Lexington  
 Lexington

## LOUISIANA (12)

Bertrand, Alvin L.  
 Bourgeois, Lawrence L.  
 Fisher, John W.  
 Frey, Fred C.  
 Heberle, Rudolf  
 Hitt, Homer L.  
 Hyde, Roy E.  
 Jones, J. H., Jr.  
 Parenton, Vernon J.  
 Price, Paul H.  
 Thompson, Susanne  
 Waddell, H. Clayton

Louisiana State University  
 Loyola University  
 Southern University  
 Louisiana State University  
 Louisiana State University  
 Louisiana State University  
 Louisiana State University  
 Southeastern Louisiana College  
 Louisiana State University  
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Baton Rouge 3  
 New Orleans  
 Baton Rouge  
 Baton Rouge 3  
 Baton Rouge 3  
 Baton Rouge 3  
 Hammond  
 Baton Rouge 3  
 Baton Rouge 3  
 Baton Rouge 3  
 Baton Rouge 3  
 Baton Rouge 3  
 New Orleans 22

## MAINE (2)

\*Ploch, Louis A.  
 Sizer, Leonard M.

University of Maine  
 Bangor Theological Seminary

Orono  
 Bangor

\*Student membership.  
 #Joint membership.

## MARYLAND (14)

- Ducoff, Louis J.  
 Fitzgerald, Sherman K.  
 Hoffsommer, Harold  
 Howes, John Baxter  
 Isenberg, Robert M.  
 Melvin, Bruce L.  
 Roberts, Roy L.  
 Rohrer, Wayne C.  
 Roth, Norman R.  
 Scott, Taylor C., Jr.  
 Stanton, Janet R.  
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 \*Taeuber, Irene B.  
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 University of Maryland  
 Westminster Theological Seminary  
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 3412 Purdue Street  
 4222 Sheridan Street  
 4222 Sheridan Street  
 106 Hodges Lane
- Silver Spring  
 College Park  
 College Park  
 Westminster  
 Silver Spring  
 College Park  
 Bethesda 14  
 College Park  
 College Park  
 College Park  
 West Hyattsville  
 Hyattsville  
 Hyattsville  
 Takoma Park

## MASSACHUSETTS (6)

- Fischhoff, Ephraim  
 Gross, Neal  
 \*Kelley, John D.  
 O'Dea, Thomas F.  
 \*Withers, Richard E.  
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 29 Clyde Street  
 Massachusetts Institute of Technology  
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 Harvard University
- Springfield 9  
 Cambridge 38  
 Belmont 78  
 Cambridge 39  
 Newton Centre 59  
 Cambridge 38

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- Beegle, J. Allan  
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 Brown, Maxwell  
 Bubolz, George C.  
 Dice, Eugene F.  
 \*Dumitru, John  
 \*Gettel, Gerhard F.  
 Gibson, Duane L.  
 \*Hague, Bart  
 Hoffer, Charles R.  
 Honigsheim, Paul  
 \*Kurtz, Richard A.  
 Lovak, Albert E.  
 Loomis, Charles P.  
 Miller, Paul A.  
 Robinson, William McKinley  
 Ryan, Bryce  
 Schuler, Edgar A.  
 Sower, Christopher  
 \*Stabler, George M.  
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 Thaden, John F.  
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 University of Michigan  
 Michigan State College  
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 Michigan State College  
 Michigan State College  
 Michigan State College  
 Michigan State College  
 1414 Low Road  
 Wayne University  
 Wayne University  
 Michigan State College  
 Michigan State College  
 Route 2  
 330 Kensington Road  
 Michigan State College  
 650 West Boston Boulevard
- East Lansing  
 Ypsilanti  
 Coldwater  
 East Lansing  
 Muskegon  
 East Lansing  
 Marysville  
 East Lansing  
 Ann Arbor  
 East Lansing  
 East Lansing  
 East Lansing  
 East Lansing  
 East Lansing  
 East Lansing  
 Kalamazoo 41  
 Detroit  
 Detroit 1  
 East Lansing  
 East Lansing  
 Okemos  
 East Lansing  
 East Lansing  
 Detroit 2

## MINNESOTA (13)

- \*Deininger, Marian  
 Donohue, George A.  
 Dvoracek, D. C.  
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 Martinson, Floyd M.  
 \*Metaweb, Ibrahim Esmat  
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 Nelson, Lowry  
 Olmsted, Ann G.  
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 University of Minnesota  
 University of Minnesota  
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 305 Pleasant Avenue  
 Macalester College  
 University of Minnesota
- Minneapolis 6  
 Minneapolis  
 St. Paul 1  
 Collegeville  
 St. Peter  
 Minneapolis 14  
 St. Paul 1  
 St. Paul 1  
 Minneapolis 14  
 Minneapolis  
 Park Rapids  
 St. Paul 5  
 St. Paul 1

## MISSISSIPPI (13)

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 Arblitman, Dorothy  
 \*Aurbach, Herbert A.  
 Brewster, Edward E.  
 Burrus, John  
 Davis, W. Milan
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 Mississippi Southern College  
 Okolona College
- Hattiesburg  
 State College  
 State College  
 Holly Springs  
 Hattiesburg  
 Okolona

\*Student membership.

#Joint membership.

## MEMBERSHIP LIST, 1954

443

Dickins, Dorothy  
Kaufman, Harold P.  
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Box 1257

State College  
State College  
University  
State College  
State College  
State College  
State College

## MISSOURI (16)

\*Blume, George T.  
\*Bonwell, Mary R.  
Comfort, Richard O.  
Coughenour, C. M.  
\*Gillette, Thomas L.  
Greer, Paul  
Gregory, Cecil L.  
\*Hansinger, Edward W.  
Hepple, Lawrence M.  
\*Holik, John S.  
Lionberger, Herbert F.  
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University of Missouri  
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.....

Columbia  
Columbia  
Jefferson City  
Columbia  
Kansas City  
St. Louis 8  
Columbia  
Columbia  
Columbia  
Columbia  
Columbia  
Columbia  
Webster Groves 19  
St. Louis 3  
Ash Grove

## MONTANA (3)

Renne, Roland  
Samson, A'Delbert  
Willson, Edwin A.

Montana State College  
Montana State College  
Montana State College

Bozeman  
Bozeman  
Bozeman

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University of Nebraska

Lincoln  
Lincoln  
Tekamah  
Lincoln

## NEVADA (1)

Bertrand, John R.

University of Nevada

Reno

## NEW JERSEY (4)

Henssler, Fred W.  
Lefes, William S.  
Powell, Luther P.  
Ranschoff, Priscilla B.

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Cape May Court House  
Drew University  
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Ringoes  
Cape May  
Madison  
Long Branch

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Geddes, Ezra W.  
Johansen, Sigurd

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New Mexico A & M College

Silver City  
Albuquerque  
State College

## NEW YORK (47)

Anderson, W. A.  
Book, Walter E.  
†Brunner, Edmund deS.  
\*Casini, William  
Cummings, Gordon J.  
Cyr, Frank W.  
Davis, Kingalee  
\*Delucca, Jorge A.  
Dirkes, Mrs. Robert F.  
  
Duthie, Mary Eva  
\*Frisbee, Elwood K.  
Hotchkiss, Wesley A.  
Infield, H. F.  
\*Kays, Esin  
\*Khan, Marlam  
\*Kirby, Fay  
\*Koenig, Edward H.

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N. Y. State Department of Health  
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1541 Santa Fe Street  
.....  
525 West 120th Street  
Columbia University  
Apt. 103, 509 West 121st Street  
155 East 44th Street, Girl Scouts  
of the U. S. A.  
Cornell University  
198 Homer Avenue  
287 Fourth Avenue  
Van Wagner Road, R. D. 3  
626 West End Avenue  
224 East 89th Street  
102 East 22nd Street  
Box 551

Ithaca  
Albany 1  
New York 27  
Schenectady  
Kings Ferry  
New York 27  
New York 27  
New York 27  
  
New York 17  
Ithaca  
Comstock  
New York 10  
Poughkeepsie  
New York 24  
New York 28  
New York 10  
Ellenville

\*Student membership.  
†Contributing membership.

- Kraenzel, Carl F.  
 Larson, Olaf F.  
 \*Longest, James W.  
 Lorge, Irving  
 \*McGonigal, Richard A.  
 McMinn, Gerald W.  
 Moe, Edward O.  
 \*Monroe, Margaret E.  
 Montgomery, James E.  
 Paw U, Richard  
 Polson, Robert A.  
 Ramsey, Charles E.  
 Randolph, Henry B.  
 Rasmussen, Albert T.  
 Reeder, William W.  
 \*Rimawi, Oasim El  
 Rodehaver, Myles W.  
 Rowan, Margaret Bright  
 Sanford, Glenn F.  
 Santopolo, Frank A.  
 Saunders, Richard P.  
 Senior, Clarence  
 Standing, T. G., Sr.  
 Taletz, Philip  
 Tripp, Thomas A. (deceased)  
 Wayland, Sloan R.  
 Whitman, Lauris B.  
 Williams, Robin M., Jr.  
 \*Wilson, Carrie  
 \*Woodward, Mary
- Near East Foundation,  
 APO 205, c/o Postmaster  
 Cornell University  
 Cornell University  
 Columbia University, Teachers  
 College  
 First Presbyterian Church  
 St. Bonaventure University  
 Cornell University  
 605 West 113th Street  
 H. D. 3  
 U. N. Box 20, Grand Central Station  
 Cornell University  
 Cornell University  
 Cornell University  
 156 Fifth Avenue  
 1100 South Goodman Street  
 Cornell University  
 136 Amity Street  
 15 Prospect Street  
 19 Broadway Terrace, Apt. 2C  
 150 Fifth Avenue  
 Fordham University  
 United Nations Plaza  
 15 Claremont Avenue  
 New York State College  
 Cornell University  
 287 Fourth Avenue  
 Columbia University, Teachers  
 College  
 297 Fourth Avenue  
 Cornell University  
 411 West 116th Street  
 Columbia University, Teachers  
 College
- New York  
 Ithaca  
 Ithaca  
 New York 27  
 Hector  
 St. Bonaventure  
 Ithaca  
 New York 27  
 Trumansburg  
 New York 17  
 Ithaca  
 Ithaca  
 New York 10  
 Rochester  
 Ithaca  
 Brooklyn 2  
 Canton  
 New York 40  
 New York 11  
 New York 58  
 New York 17  
 New York 27  
 Albany  
 Ithaca  
 New York 10  
 New York 27  
 New York 10  
 Ithaca  
 New York 27  
 New York 27

## NORTH CAROLINA (23)

- Abernethy, George L.  
 \*Barnett, William E.  
 Binkley, O. T.  
 Blackwell, Gordon W.  
 Bobbitt, Robert McD.  
 \*Connor, Ruth M.  
 \*Denton, Alfred M., Jr.  
 Douglass, Joseph H.  
 \*Freeman, Charles  
 Hamilton, C. Horace  
 Hay, Donald G.  
 Hendricks, Garland A.  
 Johnson, Elmer H.  
 \*Jones, Frank E.  
 Klein, William G.  
 Lowry, Sheldon G.  
 Mayo, Sels C.  
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 Odum, Howard W. (deceased)  
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 Werren Wilson College  
 North Carolina State College  
 North Carolina State College  
 A & T College  
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 Teachers College  
 A & T College
- Davidson  
 Raleigh  
 Wake Forest  
 Chapel Hill  
 Littleton  
 Chapel Hill  
 Chapel Hill  
 Fayetteville  
 Raleigh  
 Raleigh  
 Durham  
 Wake Forest  
 Raleigh  
 Salisbury  
 Swannanoa  
 Raleigh  
 Raleigh  
 Greensboro  
 Chapel Hill  
 Asheville  
 Raleigh  
 Winston-Salem  
 Greensboro

## NORTH DAKOTA (5)

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 Cleland, Courtney B.  
 Huff, Harold B.  
 Munch, Peter A.  
 Russell, Seth
- University of North Dakota  
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 Wesley College  
 University of North Dakota  
 State College Station
- Grand Forks  
 Fargo  
 Grand Forks  
 Grand Forks  
 Fargo

## OHIO (20)

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 Bogue, Donald J.  
 Capener, Harold H.  
 Clupper, Darwin  
 Day, LeRoy J.  
 Falconer, J. I.
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 Miami University  
 Ohio State University  
 R.D. 4  
 2411 Southway Drive
- Columbus  
 Oxford  
 Columbus  
 Bucyrus  
 Alexandria  
 Columbus 21

\*Student membership.

## 445

- #Houser, Leah
- #Houser, Paul M.
- Keys, Samuel N.
- Kirkpatrick, E. L.
- Ludlow, William L.
- Mangus, A. R.
- Miller, Roy D.
- #Morgan, Arthur E.
- #Morgan, Griscom
- Oyler, Merton D.
- Raid, Howard D.
- Reuss, Carl F.
- Schmidt, J. P.
- Templin, Ralph T.

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St. Mary's Episcopal Church  
Marietta College  
Muskingum College  
Ohio State University  
Bonebrake Theological Seminary  
Community Service, Inc.  
Community Service, Inc.  
184 East Tulane Road  
Bluffton College  
785 Montrose Avenue  
Ohio State University  
R. R. 1

Kent  
Kent  
Waynesville  
Marietta  
New Concord  
Columbus 10  
Dayton 6  
Yellow Springs  
Yellow Springs  
Columbus 2  
Bluffton  
Columbus 9  
Columbus 10  
Cedarville

## OKLAHOMA (8)

Bauman, Cecil G.  
Belcher, John C.  
Duncan, Otis Durant  
Hamner, Edward D.  
LaCamp, Ira Rex  
Powell, Reed M.  
Tarver, James D.  
Whitley, Oliver R.

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Phillips University  
306 College  
University of Oklahoma  
Oklahoma A & M College  
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Stillwater  
Stillwater  
Stillwater  
Enid  
Poteau  
Norman  
Stillwater  
Enid

## OREGON (2)

Bakkum, Glenn A.  
Griffeth, Ross J.

**Oregon State College**  
**Northwest Christian College**

**Corvallis**  
**Eugene**

## PENNSYLVANIA (30)

- \*Abramson, Renee
- \*Ayers, Mary E.
- † Bartholomew, Alfred C.
- \*Bealer, Robert C.
- Blizzard, Samuel W.
- Brown, Emory J.
- Buck, Roy C.
- \*Bylund, H. Bruce
- \*Byrn, Darle E.
- \*Douglas, George V.
- DuWors, Richard E.
- Eckleman, Robert F.
- Gordon, W. R.
- Greth, Morris S.
- Grothenthal, Joseph E.
- \*Haldeman, Walter L.
- Hess, Walter L.
- \*Hostetler, John A.
- John, M. E.
- Mather, William G.
- Nolan, Francena L.
- \*Roy, Prodlpto
- Schefele, Theodore C.
- Shissler, Henry H.
- Smith, William M. Jr.
- Stewart, Murray C.
- Swartz, C. R.
- Tozer, Martin L.
- \*Wilson, Paul B.
- Wright, Verne

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 Pennsylvania State University  
 216 South Patterson Street  
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 R. F. D. 2, Box 275  
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 Muhlenberg College  
 209 Peffer Street  
 .....  
 c/o Herald Press  
 Pennsylvania State University  
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 Pennsylvania State University  
 Pennsylvania State University  
 16 North Main Street  
 R. D. 1  
 Pennsylvania State University  
 R. D. 2  
 .....  
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 Pennsylvania State University  
 University of Pittsburgh

State College  
State College  
Lancaster  
State College  
State College  
State College  
State College  
State College  
State College  
Lewisburg  
Mount Joy  
State College  
Allentown  
Harrisburg  
Lemont  
Slippery Rock  
Scottsdale  
State College  
State College  
State College  
State College  
Greenville  
Port Matilda  
State College  
Homer City  
Grantville  
Harrisburg  
State College  
Pittsburgh 13

**PUERTO RICO (12)**

Cofresi, Emilio  
Hernandez, Martin  
Isales, Carmen  
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Administration

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Santurce  
San Juan

Mayaguez  
Santurce  
San Juan

San Juan

\*Student membership.  
#Joint membership.  
†Contributing membership.



## RURAL SOCIOLOGY

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 Santurce  
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 San Juan  
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 Brown University

Kingston  
 Kingston  
 Providence 12

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 Chang, Jen-chi  
 Edwards, Allen D.  
 Prevatte, Archie C.

Route 1  
 Claflin College  
 Winthrop College  
 .....

Pendleton  
 Orangeburg  
 Rock Hill  
 Lake View

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 Sauer, Howard M.  
 Sayler, Edward  
 Westby, F. O. M.  
 Williamson, Ralph L.

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 South Dakota State College  
 Yankton College  
 Augustana College  
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Brookings  
 Brookings  
 Pierre  
 Brookings  
 Yankton  
 Sioux Falls  
 Mitchell

## TENNESSEE (9)

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 Artis, Jay W.  
 #Bonser, Howard J.  
 Jones, William Bunyan, Jr.  
 Kloepfer, Herman J.  
 Luebke, B. H.  
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 Hiwassee College  
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Knoxville  
 Nashville 5  
 Knoxville  
 Knoxville  
 Knoxville  
 Knoxville  
 Knoxville  
 Madisonville  
 Nashville

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 Brooks, Melvin S.  
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 #Cox, Bonnie  
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 Frey, Walter  
 Judy, Marvin T.  
 #Leonard, A. L.  
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 #McBride, E. L.  
 McGuire, Carson  
 Miller, Raymond H.  
 Nelson, Bardin H.  
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 Extension Service  
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